DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 221 176 IR 010 347

TITLE	Libraries and National Development (Final Report of the Third Afro-Nordic Library Conference, Finland, September 3-7 1979).
INSTITUTION	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris (France).
REPORT NO	PGI-81/WS/11
PUB DATE	Sep 79
NOTE	215p.
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Children; Developed Nations; *Developing Nations; Folk Culture; Library Cooperation; Library Education; Library Networks; *Library Planning; *Library Role; *Library Services; Nationalism; *National Programs; Publishing Industry; Regional Programs; Shared Services; Social Environment
IDENTIFIERS	*Africa; Finland; Information Transfer; *Nordic Countries; Oral Literature

ABSTRACT

Contained in this collection of presentations from the third Afro-Nordic Library Conference are a foreword describing the objectives of the meeting and 14 papers: "From Oral Tradition to Literary Writing: The Awakening of National Awareness," by Heikki Kirkinen; "African Library Systems," by L. E. Samarasinghe; "Planning of Library Infrastructures: Nordic Views," by Lars Tynell; "Planning of Library Infrastructures: Problems Related to the Running of Library Networks in Africa," by A. G. T. Ofori; papers on centralized services for libraries in Nordic countries and in Africa, by Harald Granheim and E. E. Kaungamno respectively; "The Role of Public Libraries in the Transfer of Information," by Annette Skov; papers on resource sharing in Nordic and African libraries, by Eeva-Maija Tammekann and S. B. Aje respectively; papers on reader services for children in Nordic and African libraries, by Gerd Hillman and Gloria Dillsworth respectively; papers on integrated library education in Nordic and African countries, by Ben Rugaas and A. A. Bousso respectively; and "Libraries in the African Development Projects: The Problems of the Library Service in Africa," by D. E. Uba. Conference resolutions, a list of conference participants, and transcripts of two addresses by Finnish officials are appended. (JL)

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LIBRARIES AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

(FINAL REPORT OF THE THIRD AFRO-NORDIC LIBRARY CONFERENCE, FINLAND, 3-7 SEPTEMBER, 1979)

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LIBRARIES AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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FOREWORD

The Third Afro-Nordic Library Conference which was organised and largely financed by the Finnish National Commission for Unesco, was held in Espoo near Helsinki 3-7 September 1979 immediately after the IFLA meeting. The conference was one of the special meetings normally arranged in connection with IFLA meetings.

The Afro-Nordic meetings already have certain traditions which partly originate from the connections which many Nordic and African countries have had in development cooperation. Otherwise it would be difficult to understand this tradition of a conference for geographically distant countries.

There are also many other reasons why the Nordic countries are suitable discussion-partners for African countries. Even the largest of the Nordic countries is small and it is easier to get an overall view of their library systems at the level of a general survey than of the huge, complex organisations of the larger countries. However, the Nordic countries are highly developed as library countries and offer an opportunity to get acquainted with the latest developments in technology and other advances in the field.

As the meetingplace this time was Finland, a close examination of the national literary tradition and its importance and influence both in the operation of libraries and in the national culture as a whole was a natural topic. The delegates of the conference were offered in addition to talks and discussions an opportunity to visit the folklore archives of the Society of Finnish Literature, which is, to use a modern term, one of the world's most important databanks of folk traditions. But the present day has also pushed its way into this field of culture. Modern Finnish culture rests on

two basic pillars: on Western European culture, which has its roots both in Antiquity and Christianity, and also on the continuity of Finnish national history right up to the present day. This combination has offered the Finns their own cultural identity which differentiates them in a positive way from the people of other nations and which gives them a calm confidence in their own intellectual ability. This tradition makes both the literature and other forms of culture fruitful.

Every country has its own special features. When these special features enrich the connections and cultural exchanges between countries, they are a powerful factor. During the Third Afro-Nordic Library Conference it could be seen that the differences between countries really were big. This was for many of the delegates a welcome reminder of the fact that reality can indeed be different from what one has got used to. Certain main themes were repeatedly taken up in discussion, themes which were emphasized especially by the numerous African delegates. From the beginning of the planningstage the aim was a working conference which would try to distil from background reports, conference papers and contributions from the floor such points of view which could lead to practical action. A substantial part of the results of this follow-up work and the results of the plenary discussions, have been included in the recommendations of the conference.

Libraries are organisations which are difficult to create instantly, especially when large libraries are being considered. But during the conference it was clearly demonstrated that in many countries the cultural infrastructure would have to be extensively developed in order to make possible the systematic development and use of libraries. On this topic a lot of questions were raised, some of which are appropriate targets of foreign aid, some of which simply demand foreign aid. If the conference with its recommendations, discussions and visits helps us even one step forward along this road, then it was not held in vain.

As the chairman of the organising committee of the conference I have the pleasant duty to thank first the Finnish National Commission for Unesco and the Ministry of Education for their agreement to shoulder the main part of the financial burden of the conference. Unesco's positive attitude towards the conference was also decisive: at Unesco's expense it was possible to finance the travel and participation of many African delegates. In addition Unesco's contribution to the content of the conference was important because Mr. L.E. Samarasinghe, who participated in the conference as a representative of the Director General of Unesco, had put together a detailed report on the library situation in Africa. This report, which is in many ways unique, is included in this publication.

Significant financial support was also given by the development aid organisations of the Nordic countries in financing the travel of many of the African delegates. To all these organisations I wish to express my warmest thanks on behalf of the organising committee. The Nordic commissions for Unesco and the main Nordic library associations also took part in planning the conference. I wish to thank these organisations, too. Finally, I would like to thank all those who have worked for the conference in other ways, by either writing a report on libraries in their country or by writing a conference paper. (All these papers are available in the Library of the Department for International Development Cooperation, Ministry for Foreign Affairs, Tehtaankatu 1 a, 00140 HELSINKI 14, Finland.)

After the starter button had been pressed, the success of the conference was decisively in the hands of the secretaries and interpreters. The interpreters were Ms Barbara Jover and Ms Magui Weil. They and the Finnish secretaries deserve many thanks. But if we were to forget the delegates, we would forget the whole conference. Personally I can say that the conference was in many ways an exceptional experience, both refreshing and rewarding. A lot of work had been devoted to it both in the far north and in distant Africa. A considerable

part of this work is now available to anyone who is interested, now that Unesco has agreed to publish the main part of the conference material. Thus a remarkable collection of information on African libraries and their problems together with reports on efforts to solve similar problems in the Nordic countries has in fact been assembled. But we, who had the opportunity to participate in the conference itself, are undeniably in a privileged position; we do not only possess the letter, we also have the spirit, the spirit of inspiration and spontaneous friendship which was a characteristic of the whole conference.

ESKO HÄKLI

Chapter I

FROM ORAL TRADITION TO LITERARY WRITING: THE AWAKENING OF NATIONAL AWARENESS

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We live in an era of rapid technical and intellectual development and widening international - even global - co-operation. The vigorous development of communications and telecommunications has made it possible for nearly all the nations of the world to be in contact with each other. This has created new problems, but has also increased co-operation between distant parts of the world. We also live in an era in which large and small nations and people associate with each other. As regards international politics, it seems that a few super-powers have command of the world and govern its total development. However, the world is divided into over 250 states with several hundred nations and cultures. Within the framework of the United Nations large and small nations meet as equals. Many small countries have produced cultural achievements of as high a value as have the large countries.

We also live in an era of great changes, especially since many of the nations of Africa, Asia and Latin America have received their independence after having been through colonisation by highly industrialised countries. After the Second World War a strong independent development has begun in these parts of the world. Economically it is highly industrialised countries with market economies and socialist countries which still lead the world. But the so-called developing countries have risen to fight for their own independent development in the fields of economics and culture. It is still very difficult for them to approach the economic level of the industrial countries, but in the field of culture they have a strong possibility of achieving independent development.

Most of them have had and still have an old cultural tradition of their own and although its growth and development were repressed, it was not completely destroyed by colonisation. Now they have new possibilities of development. There are also new nations and new national cultures being born, and their roots and possibilities of development are being searched for. This is the case in many new African states. Many of them do not even have a language of their own and the growth of their young culture is in danger of being crushed under international mass culture, which spreads easily also into the new states through modern mass media, especially through the press, cinema, television and radio.

Many new nations are searching for their own roots and wondering how to find their own identity and create their own culture quickly enough so that the uniqueness, independence and creative power can be maintained. It would be useful for them to compare the experiences of other, older nations; the national and cultural development of the Nordic Countries, especially, might be able to indicate how it is possible for even a small nation in difficult circumstances to create and develop an identity of its own.

I shall illustrate this problem by using Finland as an example. Naturally the people, the nature and the circumstances were drifferent the pre-industrial Finland from what they are in Africa today. But there is something in common - the search for roots, the necessity to express identity, the will to secure the life and development of the nation.

The time perspective is also different. It took hundreds of years for Finnish national awareness to develop, but the new African nations cannot afford to waste time. The life, identity and culture of young nations must be secured and this must happen during the lifetime of a few generations, otherwise it may be too late.

The roots of the national awakening in Finland are in the Renaissance of the sixteenth century, but the actual culmination took place as late as the nineteenth century. The whole process lasted for at least 300 years. However, it must be remembered that the development of the whole of western culture from the pre-national feudal level to national cultures happened very slowly. There were no experiences to lean back upon, as today's new nations have; there were no precedents. Everything had to be experienced and learnt by following the best instincts of the best elements of the nation.

The central areas of Finland form a kind of peninsula in the Baltic Sea. They were populated very slowly during the first thousand years A.D. as a result of immigration from the south and south-east and by natural propagation. Finnish immigrants came from the area of present-day Estonia and also from other parts south of the Finnish Peninsula and from the areas south and south-east of Lake Ladoga. As time went on the inhabitants of south-west Finland formed the main tribe - Varsinaissuomalaiset - of the territory which is now Finland. Another tribe - Hämäläiset - settled further inland on the upper course of the river Kokemäki. On the north-western and northern shores of lake Ladoga yet another fairly big territory took shape as early as around the year 1000: it was called Karelia and the tribe, Karelians. These three main tribes lived relatively apart from each other during the Middle Ages, although they disputed the ownership of the forests in the wilderness and occasionally fought each other.

The fertile soil, forests rich with game, lakes full of fish and the resources of the inhabitants of the Finnish Peninsula were much sought after by both the rising Swedish empire in the west and by the Russian empire in the east. Over the centuries these nations incorporated parts of Finland - Sweden got the main part and the Empire of Novgorod the rest. As early as the twelfth and thirteenth centuries Sweden took over Varsinaissuomi and Häme, while Novgorod took the

main part of Karelia. The occupation was partly peaceful and occured through economical and ideological influence. The inhabitants were converted by the western power to Roman Catholicism and by the eastern power to the Byzantine Orthodox religion. Finnish pagan beliefs slowly gave way but in the wake of conversion there followed economic and military co-operation and finally the occupation of the country. It was a kind of colonisation. In the fourteenth century the frontier of the countries ran across Finland from the head of the Gulf of Finland across Savo and Ostrobothnia to the Gulf of Bothnia. At the end of the sixteenth century the boundary was moved further east when Sweden took over Karelia and Ostrobothnia on the coast of the Gulf of Bothnia, and even a part of Lapland. The spreading Finnish population has ousted the indigenous Lapp.

The main part of Finland was thus taken over by Sweden, although Russia controlled the main part of Karelia. History is usually written from the point of view of the victor, and this is the case with Finland's history. With the colonisation by Sweden and Russia a higher culture developed in Finland - the Roman Catholic culture in the western part of Finland and the Orthodox culture in the eastern part. A new system of government, law and society was adopted in the country. The old Finnish national culture disappeared into the background - it was made latent. The worship of pagan gods was forbidden. Ukko Ylijumala, Väinämöinen, Ilmarinen and many other ancient gods had to be forgotten - they were worshipped only in secrecy. On the other hand the high ethical and moral standards undoubtedly increased the cultural level of the tribes. An organised society, a system of courts and a thriving economic life advanced the development and within a united state the tribes began to mix, although the boundary ran between Finland and Karelia. The language and culture of the colonising powers became dominant at least among the upper class. Swedish and Latin were used as written languages in Finland, and Church Slav and Russian in Russian Karelia. Finnish national literature existed only in oral tradition in the form of ancient poems among the peasantry and was

neglected. Hardly anybody - right up to the beginning of the sixteenth century - believed that the Finnish language ever could become a written language, or a language of high cultural standing.

However, from the Renaissance onwards, some surprising and very great changes took place in the development of Finnish culture. Although the Finns were ruled by a foreign nation, Finland was never completely powerless or subjugated. It was able to take part in the Swedish government on an equal footing with the Swedish provinces and, although a Swedish upper class settled here, the strictest forms of western feudalism never had much effect here and serfdom was non-existent in Finland. Similar progress took place in Russian Karelia where the Karelians were to a great extent able to pursue their own national cultural inheritance. The state of Novgorod and the Church of Russia were even more tolerant than the western Roman Catholic Church, which attempted to destroy all the pagan beliefs and to convert the people to Christianity. In Orthodox Karelia the old Karelian tradition was allowed to co-exist with Christianity and it was only slowly and gradually that it was united with the Christian tradition.

The Reformation in the sixteenth century had a strong effect on the cultural development of Europe. The universal Catholic cultural tradition was dominant in the Catholic countries. The Reformation opposed both the narrow doctrines of the Catholic Church and the supremacy of the Catholic culture. The new Reformation was started in Germany by a Catholic monk, Martin Luther. The Reformation in Finland and in Sweden was set in motion by the learned clergy on the command of the King of Sweden. The rulers may have been more interested in national independence than in the authenticity of the religious doctrines.

Mikael Agricola was the reformer in Finland. He was of peasant origin, but attained the position of a bishop. Sometimes one great personality can do great work in primitive circumstances. Mikael Agricola was one of these. Working in

Turku as a teacher, a secretary, as a headmaster and finally as a bishop he realised that the inhabitants of Finland form a special community of their own which has its own language and oral tradition. He began to publish books in Finnish, starting with an ABC-book in 1542. He created the Finnish written language on the basis of various dialects, especially those of Turku and Uusimaa districts. A religious prayer-book was followed by a Finnish translation of the New Testament in 1548 and liturgical handbooks and parts of the Old Testament. He published mainly translations but also gave valuable information on old Finnish cultural traditions in the introductions of the books. One of the most important of these is the list of the ancient Finnish gods in the foreword of the Psalter.

Agricola's great achievement was the formation of the basis of the Finnish written language. Although his work consisted mainly of translations of Christian works, it also had Finnish national elements. It was easy to continue on this basis. It is worth mentioning that in Russian Karelia a similar awakening of the national literature nearly took place. At the end of the sixteenth century it is told that a man called Fedor Tshudinov who had been known as a philosopher and had lived in Eastern Karelia had written books in the Karelian language - even a history of Karelia. However, the raging wars at the end of the century have destroyed all the remains of Eastern Karelia's national literature from that early period. Tshudinov's work never bore fruit as did Agricola's work in the Finland governed by Sweden. Sweden expanded its empire to the east so that by the Peace of Stolbova in 1617 the part of Karelia around Lake Ladoga was part of Sweden. The government of Sweden and Finland however, could not tolerate the very different cultural tradition of Karelia. Lutheran Christianity had prevailed in Sweden and in Finland. It interpreted Christian truths and ideology in a narrow, dogmatic way. Pressure and even bribery were used when efforts were made to reform the Karelians who had adopted the tradition of the Kalevala and Eastern church. The result was that most of the Karelians

escaped to Russia and a new so called Tveri-Karelia was formed in the area of present-day Kalinin, where Karelians still form a large minority. The eastern Karelian cultural tradition and especially the cultural tradition of the Kalevala were still discriminated against and could not contribute to the Finnish national culture. On the other hand, Sweden had become a great power and it became fashionable to imitate Sweden in Finland - Finnish names were even translated into Swedish because this made it easier to advance in one's career. Swedish customs, the Swedish language and Swedish culture were dominant in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Finnish culture developed very slowly. Christian literature was published and the whole Bible appeared in Finnish in 1642, but it was not until the eighteenth century that educated people became interested in Finnish culture - and even then it was an interest shown only by early folklorists. This interest was fired by the beautiful nature of Finland and by the national virtues of the Finns: zealousness, honesty and faithfulness. One of the educated people interested in the Finnish culture was Daniel Juslenius, whose work "In Defence of the Finns" was published (in Latin) in 1703, and a Finnish-Latin-Swedish dictionary in 1745. Henrik Gabrial Porthan, called the father of Finnish history, was able to make a closer approach to the common people. A university had been founded in Turku in 1640 and Porthan was one of its teachers. He also published a series of doctoral theses under the name "De poesi Fennica", on Finnish poetry, in which he gave examples of the Finnish oral tradition. He died in 1804.

The national awakening in Finland gained momentum at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The historical condition and the international background for this was the change in Finland's political position, and the nationalistic romantic ideology which had become popular in Europe. Russia took over Finland in a war 1809. But the liberal Tsar Alexander I wanted to safeguard the peaceful integration of Finland with Russia, which was experiencing problems with different nations in other areas. The Tsar gave Finland an autonomy

and declared that it had become "a nation among other nations". Finland was allowed to keep its own laws, its own form of government and its own courts of law. The sovereign of Russia, The tsar, was the constitutional Grand Duke of Finland. Even the Diet, which was a remnant from the period of Swedish rule, was still in theory able to assemble although it was not convened for many years. Under Swedish rule the Finnish tribes had gradually learned to live together in co-operation with each other. The disagreements between tribes had decreased. A feeling of wider solidarity, a national spirit had gradually deepened instead, and its results could be seen in activities of the Finns in the eighteenth century. Now that Finland had become an autonoumos nation, this national spirit could develop freely. Through Turku University and widening international co-operation European ideologies became known in our country. Finns had since the Middle Ages, studied abroad, especially in Germany and in France. It was from there they got the inspiration to work for a national awakening. One of the first enthusiastic romantics was A.I. Arvidson, who was a teacher at Turku University who admired the history, the ancient monuments, the language and the poetic inheritance of the Finnish people. He once said: "We are not Swedes, Russians we do not want to be, so let us be Finns". The first newspaper in Finnish had been published at the end of the eighteentsh century. At the beginning of the nineteenth century more newspapers and periodicals were published. As, however, a conservative, autocratic ideology had been born in Russia, the ardent Finnish advocates of reform attracted a great deal of attention and Arvidson had to move to Sweden and many of the newspapers were abolished. The Russian Empire, which had given the basis for the awakening of the Finnish national culture, began to oppose the development of nationalism - not so much because it wanted to destroy the national culture, but because of Russia's own social and political conservativism. Finnish language and literature were, however, able to develop relatively freely.

The great figure of the nationalistic romantic period was Elias Lönnrot, the man who collected the material for Kalevala. He was born a tailor's son in 1802 in southern Finland, began to study medicine and became a doctor. He wrote his doctoral thesis on the folk medicine of the ancient Finns and while studying, he became interested in collecting folklore; it had become popular among educated people to collect folk poems. Some poems had already been collected and written down, even published, but they were only scattered examples. Elias Lönnrot aimed at a wider collection. The Finnish folklore was based on a metre natural to the Finnish language, the trochaic tetrameter. Lyric poems, magic verse, proverbs, riddles and legends were now being collected in almost all parts of Finland from common people, farmers and peddlers. On the other hand epic, heroic poems were found almost exclusively in eastern Finland. When collecting became a popular hobby, the best areas for epic poems turned out to be Inkerinmaa, south of the head of the Gulf of Finland, a kindred tribe to Karelians, Ladoga-Karelia, Ilomantsi and Eastern Karelia. A certain amount of poems were obtained from Savo and Ostrobothnia. In 1831 a free association called the Society for Finnish Literature was founded to promote Finnish literature. Soon all the leading educated people interested in Finnish national culture had joined this society. The Society for Finnish Literature, which in two years' time will be 150 years old, is one of the most important organisations which has played a part in developing our national culture. It started by supporting the collection of folklore and the publication of Finnish literature. Gradually its activities expanded and nowadays it has a large and unique archive of folklore and an extensive library - and it is active in the field of publishing.

Elias Lönnrot made his first trip to Karelia to collect poems in 1828, and many more after that. He travelled on foot, by boat, and on horseback hundreds of kilometres, visited distant villages in Ladoga-Karelia, Eastern Karelia and Kainuu, Ostrobothnia and in Savo. He collected thousands of verses of old Kalevala epic poetry which related the great deeds of the heroes and about human life. Väinämöinen, Ilma-

rinen and Lemminkäinen and the tragic hero Kullervo are the heroes of Kalevala. On these trips Lönnrot conceived the idea of combining these poems into an epic like the Greek had the Iliad and the Odyssey, and the Icelanders the Edda. He published the material he had collected on his trips first in several collections, the first one being the "Poems on Väinämöinen or Proto-Kalevala" in 1833. After another succesful trip he widened the scope of the epic, combined poems, added some magic verse, some sentimental poetry and wedding songs. In 1835 the Finnish national epic, Kalevala, was published for the first time. Its subtitle was "Old Karelian poems on ancient times of the Finnish people".

The Kalevala attached great deal of attention and increased the interest in both Finnish poetry and literature. It was soon to influence almost all areas of culture. Lönnrot, however, did not stop but continued his trips alone and together with other collectors. Thus a more extensive Kalevala appeared in 1849 and is the basic Kalevala of today. It contains 50 poems, altogether almost 2300 verses. It is quite an extensive epic entity, the cornerstone of Finnish literature.

In the Kalevala the centuries old oral tradition was written down. It created the basis for a national culture and especially for the development of Finnish literature. The Kalevala inspired people working in the cultural field, especially artists. It gave the Finns a national self-esteem, self-confidence and courage in a time when the culture of the educated was still Swedish and when the language and culture of the governing power was Russian. The Kalevala also created the basis for Finnish poetry, influenced the language and style of Finnish literature, inspired Finnish poets, composers, painters, authors and even architects to seek for a national expression. It set in motion the development of popular education, even the development of the educational system and was later one of the bases of the Finnish independence movement. The Kalevala was soon translated into several languages - first Swedish, then French, German, Hungarian, English and Russian. Althogether the Kalevala

has been translated into over 20 different languages. It has become not only a Karelian-Finnish epic but a broadly human epic, which manifests not only national values but human cultural values in general. Thus it represents national culture at its best.

The Kalevala alone was not enough for the development of a versatile and rich Finnish culture. The work of other talented artists and scientists was needed. Johan Ludvig Runeberg (1804-1877) was a poet who wrote in Swedish but described Finland's nature, the life of the people and the Finnish and Russian heroes of the war of 1808-1809 with so much warmth that the Finnish people accepted him as their national poet. He also wrote our national anthem. In the world of science and psychology J.W. Snellman (1806-1881) laid the cornerstone. He was a philosopher, economist and statesman. His main philosophical work is probably "A theory of the state", in which he stresses that the basis for a nation's survival is its national spirit and that its most important distinguishing feature is the language. During his whole life he encouraged the development of Finland's national culture, a feeling of nationalism and a national state. In the beginning the Russian authorities opposed him but, working with tenacity, he became a professor of philosophy in the university which in 1828 had been moved from Turku to the new capital Helsinki. He also became a member of the Senate - the Finnish governing body - where he worked especially for the improvement of the Finnish economy.

These three great men, Elias Lönnrot, J.L. Runeberg and J.W. Snellman symbolise the great rise of the Finnish national culture in the first half of the nineteenth century. The Finnish national awakening cannot of course be attributed only to them - but they were its forerunners, interpreters and executors. They were able deeply to understand the Finnish people, the common people, they could see the riches and resources hidden in them and their culture. They were also able to act according to their deepest conviction for the benefit of the Finnish people. They had many successors of whom the author Aleksis Kivi (1834-1872) deserves a special

mention. His main work, "The Seven Brothers" has become the cornerstone of our national epic literature. Thus, during 300 years, the Finnish nation gradually matured into an awareness of itself, a sense of belonging together, of common history and of a common cultural tradition. Through its best representatives it also had expressed this national awareness boldly, openly and simply but also genuinely. Against the perspective of the whole world it is extraordinary how a small nation with less than one million peole - and at the end of the nineteenth century two million - had been able, under foreign powers and under the pressure of a higher culture, to create its oral tradition, to convert it into written form and to widen the national awakening to reach all the fields of culture. And when the national culture had started to develop, it did not stop, but gave faith and strength even in the war for national independence, and finally in independence itself.

If the rise of the Finnish national culture has a message for other nations, it is this: a small nation can even in difficult circumstances create an identity, a national unity, a language and culture of its own, if the nation has faith in the future - if it has self-confidence, strength and creative power. Nothing can stop its development provided the nation is not completely destroyed. If the history of Finland has a message to the young African nations it is this: you also have a rich cultural inheritance in your tribes and people. Concentrate on this inheritance, open it up, create a written culture, build a national culture - you have the sympathy of many small nations, certainly that of Finland. Perhaps you have less time than we had, but you also have the benefit of modern technology and knowledge, and you can learn from the experiences of many small nations. The development process can be speeded up, although not limitlessly. So you must be patient, persistent and tenacious. But your own nation and the whole of mankind will benefit from your work because the foundation of the whole of mankind's cultural riches and ability to develop lies in the varied riches of national cultures.

Chapter II

AFRICAN LIBRARY SYSTEMS

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LIBRARY SERVICES IN AFRICA

In 1979 a team of experts set up by the Economic Commission for Africa and including representatives of Unesco, IDRC, ECA, UN and other organisations visited a number of African countries to study the situation as far as information services were concerned, to identify users needs and to design an information system to support social and economic development activities in the continent. The information given below is based upon the observations made by the team and could be considered as an indication of the current situation expressed in general terms with reference to the African continent.

There is a wide variety in the state of library development at the individual country level throughout Africa. Some countries have fairly well developed infrastructures which include in addition to libraries, also archives, documentation and information centres, computerised centres, telecommunication facilities, etc. Many countries, however, have the bare minimum, while still other countries are somewhere in between.

I INFORMATION POLICY

As far as the existence of a national policy and coordinating body or bodies are concerned, the situation is also extremely diverse. There are at present only a few countries that have established a central responsible authority or co-ordinating

agency. Infrastructures tend to develop according to local circumstances and are determined by the particular interest shown by individual institutions. Even when the infrastructure exists, the information policy making body sometimes has inadequately defined tasks and does not have either the financial means or the authority to establish a realistic policy and plan to defend it at national level.

Unesco has suggested to its Member States that an appropriate co-ordination of libraries, documentation and archives institutions by a national policy making unit might provide an incentive to development of information systems to tupport national development and provide the basis for the maximum utilization of scarce resources and equipment. In most cases, however, African countries were observed to be handicapped by the lack of co-ordination at the national level between archives, library and documentation services.

II LEGISLATION

Legislation to support libraries and library development still does not exist in some countries and is very restricted in others. While it should not be assumed that a legislative framework would resolve all the problems, it is nonetheless true that good legislation facilitates the creation and development of infrastructures.

The scarcity of support, equipment, qualified personnel and the inadequacy of legal deposit legislation or its application are impediments to the organisation of national bibliographic control. Even in those countries which publish national bibliographies, many difficulties are experienced. In some, it was shown that legal deposit laws where they exist often exclude government publications.

III DATA ON INFORMATION RESOURCES

No reliable data is available on information resources (e.g. human, financial, material) and facilities (e.g. libraries, information and documentation centres etc.) in most African countries. National union catalogues, union lists of serials, directories of libraries and other sources of information are generally lacking. As can be expected the paucity of such basic information makes it extremely difficult for any nation to plan library development in any systematic manner. It should therefore be considered as an urgent need that African countries undertake comprehensive surveys of their existing library facilities and resources. Countries interested in doing so should approach bilateral, regional or international sources from which assistance may be available for undertaking such surveys at the national level.

IV TECHNIQUES

With few exceptions, most African countries still employ manual methods for processing of books and documents. Computerized processing is still in a very embryonic stage in Africa, but it is observed that more and more African countries are moving towards the use of mechanized means for the processing of information as the result of the advent of cheaper and powerful mini computers.

The facts detailed above raise some evident questions:

1. Is there a comprehensive policy for the development of library services in the African countries? If this policy exist does it also include information, documentation and archives institutions?

2. Has any action been taken to create national co-ordinating bodies or national focal points comprising documentation, library and archives services?

3. Has a national plan for development of co-ordinated documentation, library and archives services been prepared?

4. Is the necessary legislation to support the establishment and development of these services already in existence?

5. Is there a designated body responsible for planning and implementing these services?

6. Is there a national bibliographic agency for ensuring bibliographic control for national legislation of books and documents?

V PERSONNEL

Even more serious than the lack of well planned infrastructures at the national level is the shortage in most countries of adequately trained information manpower at all levels for carrying out library and documentation activities. Adequately trained personnel are urgently needed in African countries for the national, sub regional and regional information systems that are planned or are being developed at the present time.

This dearth of appropriately trained personnel is due in part to a lack of an adequate number of Africa-based training programmes and facilities and in part to the traditional library science -oriented approach adopted by most of them in training professionals. It is observed that numerous libraries, documentation and information centres in Africa are being run by people who have received insufficient formal training in library or documentation science. While the training of librarians in the traditional techniques of librarianship provides an essential manpower component of any appropriately functioning information system, there is also a definite need for training a cadre of professionals capable of working with and utilizing modern information handling techniques to enable African countries to keep abreast of the tremendous advances that are being made in the information field. Further, it was observed that trained personnel in the countries have often received their training in insti-

tutions located in other countries in Africa or outside Africa and it was difficult for them to relate to each other on professional matters because of the diversified nature of their background and their academic training.

Another serious shortcoming in a number of countries is the lack of middle-level information specialists or technicians who are required to shoulder the major share of the day-to-day operational responsibilities. Similarly,the dearth of technicians needed to maintain and operate reprographic and printing equipment was also evident.

As regards the status accorded to librarians and other professionals in the information field, it is found that many African countries have still not taken steps to accord the profession the recognition and status that is due to it in relation to other professional groups within the country. Library associations in African countries, some of them recently established, are beginning to take steps towards inducing governments to remedy the problems being faced by this profession in their respective countries. In some African countries, these library associations are the only effective professional bodies in the information field functioning at the national level.

IV TRAINING

There are nine schools of library science in Africa: Accra, Addis Ababa, Cairo, Dakar, Lusaka, Kampala, Ibadan, Maiduguri and Zaria. The standard for entry, length and content of courses, qualifications awarded etc. vary greatly from one school to the other. Only recently have courses in documentation science been introduced in some of these schools, the school in Dakar (EBAD) possibly being the most advanced in this respect.

There are extremely few opportunities in Africa for receiving training in modern information handling techniques.

Of the training programmes perhaps the one being offered by the Ecole des Sciences d'Information (ESI) in Rabat is the only one providing modern documentation and information science courses. While this programme offers possibilities for training specialists from French speaking countries, there is no similar course for the needs of the English-speaking Africa. It is felt that if more training opportunities for information science are not provided soon in Africa or if the existing library schools have not included in their curricula appropriate courses in information and documentation science, African countries will face a critical shortage of trained information specialists in the years to come.

At present, most of the advanced training in these fields is obtained abroad. The German Foundation for International Development (DSE) has been offering specialized short-term (1 to 3 weeks) courses in librarianship and information science for the past several years in Eastern and Southern African countries. While they are useful, they are insufficient to have a sizeable impact on overall requirements of continental Africa. More and more specialized courses of this type must therefore be initiated at all levels. In summary, it is apparent that a country which has an established information policy should include as a priority activity the establishment of a national programme for training of information manpower at all levels. This should be planned as a long-term programme and should also include provision for the re-training of staff to re-adapt them to the rapid evolution of the fields of library and documentation science as well as to the new technologies planned in information.

Since the establishment of viable and up-to-date training programmes involves substantial material and, particularly, human resources, it should perhaps be wiser to work towards the development of complementary programmes which would place together all material, human and educational resources available in a region, or among a group of countries, with

a view to not only improving the activity of education but also making optimum use of limited resources.

The training of users at the national level is also important to ensure that they are able to derive maximum benefits from any information services available to them.

VII NATIONAL INFORMATION SERVICES

During their visits to libraries and documentation and information centres in Africa, the team of experts observed that many of these institutions have been established without the necessary background studies, plans and specified objectives resulting in their collections and services being often inappropriate for meeting actual needs.

There are only a few examples of national union catalogues of periodicals compiled for African countries. Many countries publish national bibliographies but most of them do not cover fully the national production of published literature. Unpublished literature e.g. not conventional literature, receives even less attention.

As the few services (bibliographic, indexing and abstracting services etc.) that are being provided do not usually meet the actual and immediate needs of most users, African researchers generally turn to libraries and information centres in the developed countries (e.g. British Lending Library or Library of Congress) to obtain the information that they require, even though the required information and documentation may be available within their respective countries or in some neighbouring state. Needless to say, this situation also leads to a tremendous waste of scarce resources, particularly foreign exchange.

International norms, standards and guidelines originating from UNISIST, IFLA, ISBN, ISSN, ISO, UBC,etc., modified whenever necessary to suit African needs, have as yet to be adopted by most African countries. Adoption of common

standards and methodology should greatly enhance the transfer and sharing of information among various institutions within Africa as a whole as well as internationally.

Although a few secondary information services such as a retrospective bibliographies and current awareness bulletins are presently available in some African countries, it is usually difficult to procure copies of the documents required by users. This is due to a number of reasons, among which the difficulty to locate the documents due to lack of bibliographic control, the shortage of human and financial resources, lack of reprographic facilities and the poor state of postal and telecommunications throughout Africa.

When national information systems have built up a capability to achieve maximum bibliographic control, they should be able to provide from their national collections and data bases regular and frequent services to users in the form of retrospective indexes, selective bibliographies, question and answer services and SDI. A document delivery service might also be established, if possible, using microforms. It will, however, be necessary to constantly adapt and modify on the basis of surveys and other studies, the type of information services best suited to the requirements of users.

ANNEX I

		National Libraries			Higher Education Libraries			School Libraries			Special Libraries			Public Libraries		
		No.	Vols.	Metres	No.	Vols.	Metres	No.	Vols.	Metres	No.	Vols.	Metres	No.	Vols.	Metres
1975	Algeria	1	754,000	16,295	3	734,000	7,305	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1971	Burundi	-	-	-	2	-	1,605	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	10,000	
1975	Comoro Islands	-	-	-	1	-	-	2	5,000	-	-	-	-	2	8,000	-
	Djibouti	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	7,000	75	-	-	-	1	5,000	-
1972	Egypt	1	954,000	-	112	2,591,000	-	-	-	-	313	1,605,000	-	156	1,029,000	-
1972	Equatorial Guinea	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1974	Ethiopia	-	-	-	1	325,000	8,668	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	17,000	-
1974	Gambia	-	-	-	3	6,000	132	124	63,000	300	10	20,000	1,100	4	25,000	630
1974	Ghana	-	-	-	3	419,000	13,962	-	-	-	1	38,000	-	1	700,000	-
1972	Ivory Coast	1	-	276	1	37,000	-	76	1,061,000	-	-	-	-	2	23,000	856
1974	Kenya	-	-	-	3	230,000	-	-	-	-		-	-	3	150,000	-
1974	Madagascar	1	138,000	4,612	2	172,000	-	199	95,000	-	7	30,000	1,000	20	134,000	-
1974	Malawi	1	39,000	-	1	160,000	-	70	210,000	-	-	-	-	2	122,000	-
1971	Mauritius	1	49,000	1,325	1	25,000	1,600	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1974	Morocco	2	316,000	-	30	139,000	-	5	34,000	-	81	287,000	-	-	-	-
1974	Nigeria	3	121,000	-	9	490,000	17,228	-	-	-	95	384,000	-	75	132,000	-
1974	St Helena	-	-	-	1	5,000	90	12	3,000	120	-	-	-	1	14,000	290
1975	Senegal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	10,000	-	1	3,000	-
1974	Seychelles	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	28,000	642	1	1,000	16	1	16,000	400
1974	Sierra Leone	1	306,000	-	6	104,000	-	-	-	-	10	26,000	-	11	392,000	-
1971	Sudan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	20,000	4,923	2	14,000	330
1971	Swaziland	1	16,00	4,059	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1974	Uganda	-	-	-	7	445,000	-	-	-	-	3	17,000	-	1	90,000	-
1971	United Republic of Cameroon	1	5,000	467		48,000	1,700	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1971	Western Sahara	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	4,000	166
1974	Zambia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	380,000	-	-	-	-

NATIONAL LIBRARIES

	Collections		Annual Acquisitions	Number of registered borrowers	Loans	Expenditure			Employees		
	Metres	Volumes				Total	Personnel %	Acquisitions %	Total	Holding diploma	Trained on the job
Algeria	16,295	754,000	24,095	6,327	16,536	2,080	52	24	90	4	13
Burundi											
Comoro Islands											
Djibouti											
Egypt		954,000	31,080						1,022	432	
Equatorial Guinea											
Ethiopia											
Gambia											
Ghana											
Ivory Coast	276		750	1,605	2,528	17,761	49	15	30	5	1
Kenya											
Madagas ar	4,612	138,000	3,200	13,916	21,692				18	3	
Malawi		39,000				30	65	15	3	1	2
Mauritius	1,325	49,000	1,005	2,850	84,105	94	72	22	6	1	2
Morocco		316,000									
Nigeria		121,000	30,626			520	34	17	148	19	
St Helena											
Senegal											
Seychelles											
Sierra Leone		306,000	10,526	72,814	122,054	57	2	62			
Sudan											
Swaziland	4,059	16,000		3,058	47,214	12	9		15	4	
Uganda											
United Republic of Cameroon	467	5,000	431			2,609	97	3	6	1	5
Western Sahara											
Zambia											

HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS-LIBRARIES

	Collections		Annual acquisitions	Number of registered borrowers	Loans	Expenditure			Employees		
	Metres	Volumes				Total	Personnel %	Acquisitions %	Total	Holding diploma	Trained on the job
Algeria	7,305	734,000	17,280	34,836	3,210	1,393	-	-	135	6	32
Burundi	1,605	-	1,500	-	2,288	-	-	-	10	2	-
Comoro Islands	-	-	20	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Djibouti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-
Egypt	-	2,591,000	51,000	-	1,750,000	-	-	-	799	6	-
Equatorial Guinea	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ethiopia	8,668	325,000	26,987	9,622	142,339	769	76	19	158	16	32
Gambia	132	6,000	330	265	10,600	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ghana	13,962	419,000	20,561	5,721	93,362	625	38	56	127	17	13
Ivory Coast	-	37,000	4,500	3,620	15,257	22,152	15	67	18	6	1
Kenya	-	230,000	37,855	7,641	149,382	8,871	41	52	219	39	-
Madagas ar	-	172,000	14,862	5,747	159	42,000	36	50	51	5	-
Malawi	-	160,000	10,000	4,176	3,500	145	47	49	48	12	6
Mauritius	1,600	25,000	2,400	686	11,000	283	27	58	12	3	-
Morocco	-	139,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nigeria	17,228	490,000	37,345	9,441	187,351	1,018	55	42	352	65	2
St Helena	90	5,000	-	40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Senegal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Seychelles	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sierra Leone	-	104,000	36,000	39,516	-	-	-	-	82	13	-
Sudan	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Swaziland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Uganda	-	445,000	9,330	-	96,724	3,221	57	37	171	16	4
United Republic of Camercon	1,700	48,000	2,000	1,800	-	16,230	45	35	25	4	-
Western Sahara	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Zambia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

	Collections		Annual acquisitions	Number of registered borrowers	Loans	Expenditure			Employees		
	Metres	Volumes				Total	Personnel %	Acquisitions %	Total	Holding diploma	Trained on the job
Algeria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Burundi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Comoro Islands	-	5,000	-	150	1,500	1,940	99	1	4	-	-
Djibouti	75	7,000	324	6,587	-	4,100	88	12	3	-	3
Egypt	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Equatorial Guinea	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ethiopia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gambia	300	63,000	1,000	26,558	-	-	-	-	7	-	7
Ghana	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ivory Coast	-	1,061,000	17,288	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kenya	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Madagaskar	-	95,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Malawi	-	210,000	8,000	14,594	-	11	-	100	-	-	-
Mauritius	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Morocco	-	34,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nigeria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
St Helena	120	3,000	250	700	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Senegal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Seychelles	642	28,000	1,890	1,022	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sierra Leone											
Sudan											
Swaziland											
Uganda											
United Republic of Cameroon											
Western Sahara											
Zambia											

SPECIAL LIBRARIES

	Collections		Annual acquisitions	Number of registered borrowers	Loans	Expenditure			Employees		
	Metres	Volumes				Total	Personnel %	Acquisitions %	Total	Holding diploma	Trained on the job
Algeria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Burundi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Comoro Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Djibouti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Egypt	-	1,605,000	179,000	-	493,000	-	-	-	690	-	-
Equatorial Guinea	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ethiopia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gambia	1,100	20,000	3,800	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ghana	-	38,000	67	-	27,070	25	37	63	7	1	-
Ivory Coast	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kenya	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Madagascar	1,000	30,000	320	-	-	-	-	-	9	-	-
Malawi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritius	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Morocco	-	287,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nigeria	-	384,000	39,519	-	-	125	76	24	460	37	-
St Helena	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Senegal	10	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	-	-	-
Seychelles	16	1,000	100	-	500	50	54	10	3	-	-
Sierra Leone	-	26,000	1,200	-	-	-	-	-	27	3	-
Sudan	4,923	20,000	1,813	-	400	12	37	63	16	5	5
Swaziland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Uganda	-	17,000	1,000	-	3,100	-	-	-	14	5	2
United Republic of Cameroon	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Western Sahara	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Zambia	-	380,000	30,000	-	152,098	95	-	-	60	14	2

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

	Collections		Annual acquisitions	Number of registered borrowers	Loans	Expenditure			Employees		
	Metres	Volumes				Total	Personnel %	Acquisitions %	Total	Holding diploma	Trained on the job
Algeria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Burundi	-	10,000	-	-	-	148	-	-	4	-	-
Comoro Islands	-	8,000	280	370	-	410	32	68	-	-	-
Djibouti	-	5,000	500	430	2,500	2,400	83	17	5	-	5
Egypt	-	1029,000	77,000	-	6,780,000	-	-	-	476	-	-
Equatorial Guinea	-	17,000	-	138	909	400	75	25	4	-	-
Ethiopia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gambia	630	25,000	2,687	1,354	21,140	23	86	4	10	1	3
Ghana	-	700,000	58,580	26,000	830,000	389	53	47	288	33	33
Ivory Coast	856	23,000	2,960	8,276	12,413	-	-	-	12	4	4
Kenya	-	150,000	80,000	25,000	22,200	69	58	30	45	11	-
Madagascar	-	134,000	4,820	-	135,328	-	-	-	40	4	4
Malawi	-	122,000	13,551	24,445	363,481	75	44	34	40	3	7
Mauritius	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Morocco	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nigeria	-	132,000	-	150,979	-	131	-	-	458	70	-
St Helena	290	14,000	600	100	-	1	73	16	1	-	1
Senegal	-	3,000	100	3	6	-	-	-	-	-	-
Seychelles	408	16,000	2,240	3,000	62,000	37	84	4	4	1	-
Sierra Leone	-	392,000	6,155	86,898	139,167	98	47	15	61	8	27
Sudan	330	14,000	360	366	9,435	11	82	16	21	2	6
Swaziland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Uganda	-	90,000	4,500	38,009	107,583	-	-	-	80	13	35
United Republic of Cameroon	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Western Sahara	166	4,000	240	665	32,210	150	38	33	2	-	-
Zambia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Chapter III

PLANNING OF LIBRARY INFRASTRUCTURES: NORDIC VIEWS

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This is a very extensive subject for a short paper such as this one, and I have chosen to put the stress on the last word of the heading. So what I am going to do now is to express some personal - perhaps too personal - points of view on library planning. I would also like to add, right at the beginning, that I am not going to talk very much about planning in the technical sense of the word. I will rather be dwelling on some of the basic factors affecting the library scene and, consequently, the planning of library work in the Nordic countries.

One difficulty arises immediately. Is it really possible to give a Nordic point of view? I think it is correct to say that it is a continual source of astonishment to us who live in Scandinavia that our region is regarded, from outside, as so very uniform and our countries so similar in character. As a matter of fact, the concept of Nordic unity is a comparatively modern one. The earlier history of our region is a tale of discord and mutual aggression rather than concord and union, and as late as World War II our five nations encountered very different destinies, with political consequences which are felt up to this day.

All the same, there are a number of factors which make it understandable that the Nordic countries, to the onlooker, present a picture in which the differences seem to be less significant than the similarities.

From a linguistic, and consequently a cultural, point of view, there is a comparatively high degree of unity. The Danish,

Norwegian, Icelandic, and Swedish languages are closely related to each other, so that, for instance, a Dane will need little training to understand written and spoken Swedish. Finnish is a different matter altogether, but Finland has, all the same, strong linguistic links with the rest of Scandinavia through the large Swedish-speaking minority in Finland and, nowadays, the large Finnish-speaking minority in Sweden.

Politically and socially, there are also important similarities. Parliamentary democracy was established in all our countries at the end of the nineteenth century or the beginning of the twentieth. The ambition to create an egalitarian society has, since that time, probably been more pronounced here than in most other Western European countries.

An important common feature of Nordic democracy, which is essential when we are dealing with library organisation, is the very strong position of local government, which is founded on the right to raise money through local taxation. The smallest unit of local government is generally called the commune (sometimes translated into English as "municipality"). During the last decades there has been, in all our countries, a development towards an integration of many small communes into a limited number of larger units. This development seems to have been strongest in Sweden, which has the largest population (about 8 million) but now consists of only about 275 communes. Denmark, with 5 million, has the same number, while Finland, with a slightly smaller population, has 475 and Norway with 4 million inhabitants has about 450 communes.

This policy of integration does not prevent our communes from being, in actual fact, of widely varying size and structure. It goes without saying that planning of public libraries or any other public service will look very different in a capital with 0,5 - 1 million inhabitants (which is the case with Helsinki, Oslo, Copenhagen, and Stockholm) and, at the other end of the scale, rural communes with perhaps two or three thousand people. And in a rural commune, general

conditions can be very different. Extremities are represented by agricultural regions in south Scandinavia with temperate climates, fertile soil, and dense population, and many of the communes in the north where a very small population, living under semi-arctic conditions, is scattered over a surface which may be more than half the size of a country like Belgium. But from the administrative point of view all these units are on the same level: the Nordic countries do not have, nowadays, the differentation in various categories - e.g., cities, towns, rural villages - which is practised in many parts of the world.

Every Nordic commune is governed by its local council, elected by all who have the right to vote - normally everybody above 18 years of age. As in our national parliaments, the party system and party politics play a very large role, and the proportions of different political parties in the municipal council is reflected in all the different committees which are appointed by the council. This means that every member of the local library committee or cultural committee of a Nordic commune is, by definition, a representative of a political party; you do not find, as in certain other countries, individuals who are serving on a library committee primarily because they are personally interested in library activities or because they represent civic groups, business interests, and so on.

As long as one is dealing only with very general, broad outlines I think it is correct to say that the planning of the library service of a commune is not, as a rule, very controversial at the political level. The responsibility of society for maintaining a public library service for all inhabitants is, in principle, generally accepted. (In Sweden, which is the only country where there is no law providing compulsory public libraries, there is nevertheless no commune without a public library.)

As soon as you begin to deal with real life, you will find very large differences, not only regarding the quantity and

quality of the service which is provided but also with regard to the principles - the cultural policy' to put it solemnly. These differences have, more often than not, a historical background. The Scandinavian public libraries did not come into existence as a finished system, through some act of will from above, from a central authority. They almost always have a background of local initiative, which often goes quite far back in time and which can be of a very different nature from the present system. The church (which means in Scandinavia the Lutheran state church) was in former times responsible for much educational work, especially in the rural regions. Various idealistic and philantropic organisations founded public libraries during the nineteenth century. But first and foremost it was the socialist labour movement and other so called "popular movements" which, at about the turn of the century, took the initiative in founding a large number of "workers' libraries" and so on: behind this was of course the idea that knowledge confers power and consequently is an important tool for building a society based on justice and equality.

It may seem superfluous, in a brief sketch such as this one, to go back in time to a period when the modern "welfare state" only was a dream, and when the Nordic countries were still economically weak, with a large proportion of the population living in real poverty. But I do it because it is abundantly clear that political attitudes and consequently planning of library services and other cultural services of society are still to a high degree stamped with the mark of this inheritance.

What I have said about the historical background also means, of course, that many of our communes did not have to start from scratch when the large expansion of the public library service started a few decades ago. In Helsinki, for instance, the starting point was the main library, which was founded as early as 1880. But this is only an example; it would be possible to mention many other cases where a modern public

library was created by the amalgamation of existing small units of various origins into a centralised network.

Later development has not necessarily signified a growing number of service points. Very often the tendency has been the opposite. A commune had perhaps quite a large number of distribution points for books - libraries that had belonged to different organisations and had been transformed into small branches, or distribution points in schools, shops - which served small areas and were easy to reach on foot or by bicycle, or skiing. As in most other parts of the world, conditions have changed radically during the past decades. As a consequence of the rapid development of transport we have had, in most fields of public service, a strong tendency towards a smaller and smaller number of larger and larger units. Instead of many small local hospitals, we have a few enormous central hospitals. Instead of a small school in every village, or in evey district of a town, we have a limited number of big central schools to which children are taken by special buses every day, often, for instance in north Scandinavia, covering very large distances. It is easy to appreciate the advantages of such an arrangement. The large hospital can employ specialists a small place could not afford to pay. The big school can offer a better basis for teachers with special knowledge and for more expensive educational materials. The same applies to public libraries; at least, that has been the working hypothesis. A library that is planned to be used by the population of a larger area can presumably obtain more space, a better selection of books, more staff and longer opening hours. Most communes have tended to act according to this pattern: the principles of industrial management, as they are taught at the business schools, have been applied to libraries as well as to industry, large-scale farming and hospital and school administration.

The main tendency could be illustrated by many examples. A well-known and much publicised case is the City Library of Sweden's second-largest city, Gothenburg, where a general plan for the future development of the public library system

was approved by the local council in 1961 and implemented during the sixties and early seventies. The main idea behind this plan was to create a new regional structure with one main library, four regional libraries and a number of local branches in every region. This meant building a new main library, three regional libraries, and a few branches, but also discarding seven or eight existing branch libraries. For housing areas with less than ten thousand inhabitants, branch libraries were in principle not provided. Instead, an extended use of book-mobiles was recommended.

Adapting the same principles to a very different situation, many communes in North Scandinavia with a very large area and a small population have suppressed small local libraries that existed earlier and concentrated most of their efforts on an effective book-mobile service.

A new incentive leading in the same direction is the computer-isation of a number of library routines. This is making rapid progress and tends to encourage the new large-unit pattern because of the investment in expensive technical equipment that is necessary at every single service point.

Up to a certain point, this is all very well, and many communes have indeed provided a fine library service for their citizens based on the principles I have just referred to. But, on the other hand, the analogy between a school, a hospital and a library is obviously not one hundred per cent correct. Attend-ance at school is compulsory in the Nordic countries from seven to about sixteen years of age, and you do not need any special motivation to try and get into hospital if you have broken a leg or appendicitis. But to make use of a library or any other cultural facility offered by society demands an entirely different kind of motivation and avtivity on your own part. Studies undertaken in many countries show that that part of the population which has the best educational back-ground is also over-represented among the users of public libraries. Conversely, the people who have a minimum of academic training and need the information facilities offered

by the library more than anybody else are always under-represented. Most societies try to correct this by means of special measures to help under-privileged groups. (In this context, I would like to stress that Nordic prosperity and social equality are relative phenomena. Large groups of the population are prevented or at least discouraged from using the public libraries by various factors such as poor schooling, social problems and geographical distance. Other typical under-privileged groups are immigrants and people living in public institutions of various kinds.)

Obviously the economic problems which most countries are facing at the moment do not favour the rethinking that seems to be so necessary. All the same, I think it is correct to say that many experts, politicians and ordinary citizens in the Nordic countries as well as in other parts of the world have started questioning the effects of the type of planning we have had now for a long time - where the principles have been taken over wholesale from business management. A type of planning is demanded which does not regard every single activity - and its cost - as an isolated entity, but is adapted in a more flexible way to the different needs of the individuals, to the habitation structure - in a word, to the economic and social realities of the area.

There are several text books on library planning and library administration. Some of them are excellent, but many of them are dominated by the type of quantitative thinking I have referred to. Quantitative standards could be useful in a given situation, but my point is that we ought to be very careful when we use them as guidelines for our planning. A local library service must always be regarded in its social context. I would like to quote a few lines from a very interesting article by Mr. Ismo Karvinen, the librarian of Valkeala, a small town 150 km north of Helsinki (Scandinavian Public Library Quarterly, 1978, p 99):

> "As the inhabitants of the distant villages see it - after they have been deprived of their shop, post office and school - the branch library with an annual lending figure of 7 000 - 10 000 is the final link in the continuity of services. One would not like to see them left without it because of regulations related to efficiency norms. Isn't it an obligation for the national library organisation to see that such branch libraries remain as the intellectual centres of tiny villages, if not for other reasons, then because of the principle of equality?"

At this point, I would like to make a rather personal comment about the extension work of public libraries to under-privileged groups. This type of work, in factories, hospital wards, prisons and so on has in recent years been more or less generally accepted, at least in principle. But even among librarians you will often hear the argument that the main purpose of this activity is to encourage new groups of readers to come to the library. In my opinion this is a very questionable idea, resulting perhaps from our inclination, as professional librarians, to overrate the importance of the library as an institution. What, indeed, do we mean by a library? If we are distributing books to factory hands on the shop floor, to patients in a hospital ward, to children in a kindergarten, to old people in an institution for the aged or, by means of book-mobile, to people living at a distant farm, we should not necessarily regard ourselves as missionaries for the large central institution. We are doing something that is library work in its own right. A library should not be regarded as an institution but rather as an activity which can appear in many different guises. And the readers - the users - should be regarded as quite normal library readers, even when we meet them in the special situations I have just described. I cannot see any real disadvantages in a public library service where the library pursues a large proportion of its work in a decentralised pattern which can be of a very diverse character but which should always be carefully adjusted to the solid basic conditions of the local community it is serving.

In this brief sketch, I shall not go into detail about the planning of a decentralised library service of this type. There is, however, one important point which cannot be omitted altogether. I am referring to the co-operation between schools and libraries, but I shall confine myself to the general remark that you may find in our countries many different solutions to this problem. There are branch libraries which have the additional function of serving the teachers and pupils of a secondary school. In other places, school libraries of primary schools may be used as part of the public library organisation, serving the children of the area not only during school hours.

Another important topic is planning within the sector of research libraries, i.e. libraries serving universities and other institutions of higher education, research, scientific and technological development. An important point for discussion is, of course, the use of the public library network - or infrastructure - as a means of distributing to local users all over the country documents and other specialised information stored in centrally situated research libraries. I shall limit myself to expressing the personal view that this is a highly problematic aspect of Nordic library organisation. We may have established a reasonably efficient inter-library loan service. But we are not, in my opinion, adequately able to serve the fast-growing number of qualified readers, often with very special needs, living in places where there are no research libraries. This is a growing problem, mainly because it is an essential part of present educational policies to decentralise university education by organising courses on the university level in local centres spread throughout the country. These new branch universities, district colleges and so on (it is difficult and perhaps unnecessary to translate the terms used for these new units in our different countries) usually have a library of sorts, but more often than not it has totally inadequate resources. This large expansion of university education took place during the same comparatively prosperous period, the sixties and early seventies, when many of the middle-sized towns in which these

new institutions of higher education were founded built new premises for their public libraries. The obvious solution would have been to create a multi-purpose library to serve the general public as well as the small local academic community. But, as far as I know, this opportunity was not taken anywhere. The reason is obviously the deep chasm which, on the whole, tends to separate public libraries from research libraries in our part of the world. This, in its turn, has no doubt an historical background. The large general research libraries in the Nordic countries, in the capitals and some university towns, came into existence at a time when the concept of general public education did not yet exist - and still less the concept of the public library. So, when the public library movement reached us from England and the USA during the later part of the nineteenth century, it did not occur to anybody that the old, prestigious libraries could be given a responsibility in this new field which at the beginning was regarded more or less as a philanthropic activity. To me, it seems that Scandinavian librarianship missed a point here. Perhaps this is a mistake which could be avoided in the countries where these problems can be tackled without preconceived opinions.

PLANNING LIBRARY INFRASTRUCTURES PROBLEMS RELATING TO THE RUNNING OF LIBRARY NETWORKS IN AFRICA

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I INTRODUCTION

Libraries and librarianship in Africa began a little over a quarter of a century ago. Before then, libraries of some sort had been provided in some 34 countries. Some were well organised, but generally they consisted of a few collections of books and some public reading rooms managed by expatriate personnel. The general awareness and the need to organise library services began with the memorable Unesco Seminar on the "Development of Public Libraries in Africa" held in Ibadan, Nigeria in 1953.

Many recommendations resulted from this conference. Among them were recommendations for the promulgation of appropriate legislation to ensure the permanence of library services, the preparation of national plans for public library development and the involvement of the librarian in the development of such plans. They contained suggestions that the control and direction of library development be vested in independent state agencies such as library boards or library councils and stressed the need not only to establish Library Schools, but also to ensure the creation of an organised library profession.

Momentum gathered after this seminar and the development of librarianship is one of the most significant events in the provision of educational and cultural facilities on the African continent during the past three decades. Today there is practically no English-speaking country in Africa without any form of organised library network. The development within French-speaking Africa, which began rather slowly, has gathered momentum and one can place confidence in the development which began with EFAN and the chain of documentation and

bibliographic establishments which span the French African countries.

What problems have we accounted and what lessons have we learnt in the twenty five years of library development? What suggestions can we put forward for the guidance of future generations?

II ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

There is no doubt that all governments in Africa realise and appreciate the need for library services. In many countries funds are generously provided. Generally, however, the support is insufficient, the status of personnel is low and salaries are inadequate compared with those in parallel professions. This phenomenon is illustrated by what is happening in Ghana today.

From 1950 onwards Ghana was a leader in demonstrating how a national public library service could be established and flourish in a developing country. A network of public libraries was planned and established and the services covered the entire country. The universities and scientific institutions had well-established libraries and so did many government departments and corporations. And to give an extra impetus to the service, the Library Board established its own school which has now developed into a University Department responsible for the training of all grades of library personnel. All this happened while the economy was flourishing. With the decline which set in gradually during the late 1960s, the pattern began to change. Today Ghana has not only lost its leading role but those of us in Ghana who know what a good library service should be are beginning to feel rather uneasy.

If one asks what has been the cause, the answer is obvious - it is economic. Libraries do not yield physical revenue to the state. Their profits are intangible in terms of physical development - and yet they are fundamental to progress. For the simple reason that libraries do not yield immediate

physical results, some governments, although they appreciate the need for libraries, feel unable to provide the large sums of money which these services require for their maintenance and extension to remote areas. They justify this on the grounds that the areas of immediate priority are food, shelter and medical care. We in Ghana have every year to fight for a share of the scarce foreign exchange to buy the books and such other infrastructural requirements as vehicles and equipment. We have to justify the need for continued expansion of the library programme.

Until recently, Ghana has been a comparatively rich country. There are on the continent many less fortunate countries whose problems and difficulties, especially financial, can be very well imagined.

III THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

Finance is only part of the problem. Libraries are social agencies which reflect the society of which they are a part. The high rate of illiteracy does not create a demand for library services from below. In other words, there is no strong pressure from the mass of the illiterate and semi-literate population for the setting up of such services. Librarians in Africa are very conscious of this and although their development plans are replete with suggestions for the extension of services to rural areas, there seem to be little backing from those for whom the plans have been designed.

Associated with this is a problem inherent in the educational process. The system of education in Africa as described by Lester Asheim places too much "emphasis upon unquestioning acceptance of professorial authority" and in some cases books have very little part to play in the process. Often lecture notes and a single textbook suffice to see the student through most of his academic career and everything about the educational process tends to discourage rather than encourage the habit of reading. Outside reading is seldom assigned, often because reading material is unavailable. Advancement

is based all along the ladder from elementary school to university on examinations which are designed to test rote memory rather than knowledge of the subject.

The habit of reading is not widespread and libraries, where they exist, are not used for any other purposes than to cram for examinations. Ashiem's observations have been confirmed in a report on library facilities in secondary schools published in Ghana in 1970. The report observed that "The largest single users of the Ghana Public Libraries are students. Their main aim is to use such books as will assist them directly in passing their examinaton successfully. There is disturbing evidence that these students, almost immediately on passing the examinations cease to read on any wider basis. Since the Ghana Library Board was set up in 1950, a chain of libraries has been established throughout the country. There has been a considerable increase in the output of educated Ghanaians during these years because of the phenomenal expansion in educational facilities. But contrary to expectation, comparatively few continue to visit these libraries or use them for purposes other than those already given."

A library service which does not tackle the problems associated with the creation of reading habits will soon realise that it is wasting resources. Ghana's view of the solution to this basic problem is emphasised in the report. It states "We feel certain that the period in schools and colleges is one of the most important stages in the education system. It is here that most of the skilled manpower of the nation is trained, where the quality of the future university student is determined, and where character building and the qualities of leadership can best be developed. For this reason it is at this stage that the use of libraries must be entrenched in the child. If at the school level students are provided with ample opportunities of discovering facts, finding solutions to their problems and developing research practices with the help of library materials they will utilise library materials not only at schools, colleges and universities but in their professions and private life and will be a great asset to the nation. Unless this was done the educational

progress of students leaving secondary schools and training colleges is likely to come to a stop."

IV THE NEED FOR LOCAL PUBLISHING AND BOOKSELLING

The import of this statement is clear enough. What is equally important is the availability of the right type of reading material in sufficient quantities for the reading habit so created to be sustained. In all the developed countries, publishing preceded the establishment of libraries. When libraries became the means for the spread of popular education and culture for the masses, there were comparatively few problems for the librarians - the literature was there in the indigenous languages to be purchased and used. This is not the case in Africa. Although library services have been established without indigenous publishing enterprises either in the local or foreign languages, the experience we have gathered has led us in Ghana to the conviction that indigenous publishing is an absolute necessity if libraries are to succeed and play effective part in national development.

In Ghana, libraries have existed from the early 1930s and support for the public library idea gained force with the passing of the Library Board Act in 1950. Although local publishing is now increasing in Ghana, as indeed in the whole of Africa, the bulk of the literature in our libraries is a selection of what is available on the foreign market, especially in Britain. Instead of being services created to meet real needs, libraries are becoming mere sales outlets for the overseas book trade. The bulk of what is available does not reflect the tastes, outlook, culture, problems or ideosyncracies of the African. Although the scene is changing and has been a marked improvement in publishing ventures, there is still a great deal to be done to meet the demands of libraries. African librarians must be concerned about the lack of indigenous writing and publishing and must play a leading role in any effort which will lead to the promotion of writing and publishing. The establishment of Book Development Councils in Africa, which is currently being given great attention by

Unesco, is a move in the right direction and African librarians must give it their active support.

Equally important is the need for the establishment of sales outlets and good bookshops as an infrastructural rquirement for efficient library development. We are enviously aware of the services which bookshops give to the libraries of developed countries. The absence of such essential distribution networks in Africa makes the selection of suitable reading material a "lucky dip" exercise. Apart from reviews, which are often not readily available the librarian has nothing to assure him that he has chosen the right type of material for the groups he is to serve.

The problem of publishing and book selling is a real thorn in the flesh of the African librarian. A dedicated librarian committed to broadening the outlook of the public and ensuring that libraries play effective role in economic development must give some of his attention to efforts which may help solve problems in this specific area.

V THE NEED TO EXPAND TRADITIONAL LIBRARY CONCEPTS

In the majority of library systems in Africa, and indeed in developing countries, the traditional library pattern seems to be the norm. The services appear to have been geared to the needs of the educated - that is, the literate adult population and the children. The problems associated with these services are those I have been discussing. There is now an urgent need in Africa, if we are to make any headway in our economic development, to redesign and repattern library services and information transfer to meet the needs of illiterate people. This suggestion is not new; it has been mentioned before but very little action has been taken. In Africa the mass of the population is illiterate - and, ironically, they constitute the backbone of the economy.

In agriculture, for example, the cocoa and coffee growers are generally illiterate. Their work sustains the economy,

since they produce the crops for export and for local consumption. An examination of the state of underdevelopment in Africa suggests that these people are still carrying on the traditional methods of agriculture. There is evidently not enough information available at their level about the new discoveries and techniques which have been employed in several countries or which have been discovered by scientists working in Africa. The ultimate objective of the librarian working in such a typical environment is to employ all available means to disseminate information about such discoveries of scientific methods to the people who need it.

A service geared to achieving this end must make a shift from the traditional library practice and the sole dependence on the book to the use of audio-visual materials as the vital medium of information transfer. The infrastructural requirements for a service of this nature are complex and sometimes too expensive to acquire and maintain - for example - records, tapes, films and film projectors, gramophone records and the like. Perhaps the most difficult aspect of this problem is the availability of the right type of films and film strips. I am not aware of any agency in Africa which produces this type of source material. Emphasis must be placed on "relevance" since in the context of illiteracy very wrong impressions can easily be conveyed if the materials do not relate to the environment. If a library service is to succeed in our type of urban community, it must be taken to the people. A whole machinery must be created to handle it effectively. It will need the backing of a fleet of vehicles suitably designed to carry essential literature, project films and play recordings. These are expensive to acquire and maintain and for many countries in Africa they are extremely expensive.

From all the indications, it seems that the Tanzania Library Service is a pioneer in this type of library concept and we shall have much to learn from its experience. We in Ghana have found it necessary to commission a study to be carried out by the Institute of Statistical and Economic Research (ISSER) of the University of Ghana, and we hope that its

recommendations will form the basis for the introduction of this type of service. The study will undertake a survey of users and non-users of the library services in rural settings and attempt to identify the kind of information used in every-day life, the source from which the information is obtained, how it is transmitted and how the Ghana Library Service could be adapted to meet their demands efficiently. It will also seek to find the part traditional library materials - books, periodicals and so on - play in the life of the rural community and establish the extent to which audio-visual media can be employed. It will focus attention on the whole question of illiteracy and levels of literacy and suggest ways in which the library can share the responsibility for a meaningful information exchange. Surveys of such a nature are required in many developing countries to gather data for new policy directives in library development.

IV EDUCATION, TRAINING AND THE LIBRARY PROFESSION

I will now turn attention to one basic infrastructural requirement in library services for developing countries - education and training. The success of the Ghana Library Service stemmed from the fact that early foreign monetary assistance to the Library Board was devoted entirely to the training of personnel. Today a vigorous educational programme is a vital feature of the service. A major recommendation of the Unesco Ibadan Seminar emphasised the establishment of library schools of high calibre to provide full-scale professional training at the leadership level. Today there are about five library schools in English-speaking Africa and one in the French-speaking countries. In general the output is small in relation to the nature of the services needed. A survey made two years ago named 90 vacancies in the services of the Ghana Library Board alone, excluding the requirements of the numerous government departments, universities and scientific institutions. A similar situation exists in many African countries. Therefore the need to train staff both at the middle management and higher leadership levels is great and must be given priority attention.

Training must be understood in its broadest sense and should, in addition to courses leading to the award of degrees and diplomas, include seminars, refresher courses, attachment and study tours designed to enlarge the horizons of the librarian in his African environment. Librarianship is a practical profession and the assistance to African countries should be designed bearing this in mind.

One area of concern in librarianship in Africa lies in the weakness of the library associations. A dynamic effort was made soon after the Ibadan Conference in 1953, and from then until the middle of 1960 the West Africa Library Association (WALA) flourished. Its floundering from then on, and its eventual break-up were brought about by several factors. Among them were the problems of communication, finance and nationalism. The national associations which grew out of it began well and, while some are flourishing, others are virtually ineffective and do not play their leadership roles or unite members. Most disturbing of all, they do not exert any pressure on decision makers. This accounts for the generally low status which is a disturbing aspect of the profession of librarianship in Africa. The need for powerful professional association cannot be over-emphasised. A powerful library association will be able to create a status for itself, assert its image and make a meaningful contribution to economic development.

So far I have said little about the recognition of the status of the profession. In every country throughout the world librarians form a small group of the professional corps and the people who matter generally have only a hazy idea of their role and their contribution to society. The tendency in many African countries is to grade them as technicians with the sub-managerial classes. But the concept of librarianship has moved away from the custodianship to active participation in the transfer of information. We are directly involved in the primary concern of all governments in Africa, which is to eliminate disease and ignorance. We need therefore to make our presence felt through powerful associations. We need to

assert our role and status with parallel professions so that the profession can attract people of the right calibre.

I have in outline listed some of the problems which inhibit the development of librarianship in Africa. I made reference to the need for awareness for the development of librarianship, the problems of education and the consequent demand for library services by the liblic at large. I have referred to the problems of illiteracy and the need to restructure the services to meet the needs of the rural population, and lastly I have highlighted the problems of training professional associations and the status of the profession. Lester Asheim's conclusion in 1966, that it is the "lack of real conviction" rather than money which accounts for the absence of effective library services in developing countries, is no longer true in Africa. Many African governments are convinced of the need to develop effective library services. What inhibits library development is inadequate infrastructural facilities, which I have discussed. The problem of money, particularly foreign exchange, is paramount, as the basic tools for the services are not locally available.

VII SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Library planning must be seen as an important aspect of national economic planning. For a sustained economic growth, people need information at all levels - high level, middle level, semi level and, in the African context, illiterate. Therefore there is a need for the re-examination of the existing policies to ascertain the extent to which these needs can be met. This will call for studies similar to the one I have referred to in Ghana. Currently, the expertise is locally available, but it costs money. Are there any sources of international funding?

2. Library services cost money and the fact that their contribution to the economy is not physically tangible sometimes encourages to indifferent attitudes on the part of policy makers, and often little financial support is given.

Generally the need is realised but economic constraints hamper development. The priorities in Africa are in the areas of food, shelter and medical care and the African librarian needs to assert his role if he is to be allocated a fair share of the national budget for library development. His problem can be alleviated if basic services such as publishing and bookselling are locally developed. Local publishing must be a subject of paramount concern to the librarian, as he cannot expect to inform people with material that is alien to their environment. The establishment of Book Development Councils must be pioneered and supported by the African Librarian.

3. I have referred to the new directions of library services and the need to give as much attention as possible to the needs of illiterates and semi-literates. This group of people forms the largest sector of the population in Africa and they are the generators of foreign exchange. A service of this nature will require the expensive hardware which I have described. The acquisition of such material on a large scale can pose problems for countries with weak economies. Can possible areas of assistance be found?

VIII CONCLUDING REMARKS

The world economic crisis is threatening the provision of library services in Africa. As money, especially foreign exchange becomes scarce, the very existence of libraries is threatened as governments become more concerned with the priorities of feeding the people and fighting disease. The problem is all the greater because the essential tools, books and related materials are not produced locally in sufficient quantities. There is a need for the reappraisal of our objectives and for attention to be focussed on the problems I have outlined in this paper.

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Chapter IV

CENTRALISED SERVICES FOR LIBRARIES: NORDIC EXPERIENCES

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I INTRODUCTION

The Nordic countries have a relatively long experience with various forms of centralised library services. I believe Norway was the first of the Nordic countries to introduce, on a governmental initiative, certain centralised services for its libraries. This took place in connection with a comprehensive library reform in 1902, and the new services then offered were the following:

1. The preparation of a list of books appropriate for the public libraries. The books were graded on a star system - two stars for books which should be in every library, and one star for books which could be highly recommended.

2. The introduction of the Dewey decimal system and centralised classification and cataloguing.

3. Centralised production and sale of printed cataloque cards.

4. The establishment of a centralised bookbinding service for libraries - together with the sale of other materials and equipment.

To deal with these tasks the Ministry of the Church and Education made an agreement with a private firm to establish a department which should function as a centre for the public and school libraries (Folkeboksamlingenes Ekspedisjon). There were, of course, several reasons for starting these services. One of them was an attempt by the government to ensure that state grants, which were given more regularly after 1902, were spent on so-called "good" - or suitable - books.

This newly founded centralised service and the standardisation it brought with it were of great importance for libraries in Norway and - together with other efforts to accomplish

library reform - these were instrumental in bringing the Norwegian library system to its leading position in the Nordic countries.

The other Nordic countries also began establishing centralised services at the beginning of the century. As early as 1915 Sweden started an arrangement for centralised cataloguing of books through the State Library Inspection. Denmark had an experimental system in this area in 1916.

II WHY HAVE A CENTRALISED LIBRARY SERVICE?

It is difficult to give one single answer to why we opted for a centralised library service in the Nordic countries. For many, the standardisation and systematisation which have been achieved are the conclusive arguments. Where Norway is concerned, another series of conditions most probably played an important part: it is difficult to build a library system in a country as large as Norway, with a scattered population and considerable communication difficulties. The country consists predominantly of small and sparsely populated communities and few of these municipalities are financially able to support a professional library staff. Central services are therefore of great importance, both practically and economically.

III ESTABLISHMENT OF LIBRARY BUREAUS IN THE NORDIC COUNTRIES

Sweden was the first to establish what we today call a Library Bureau - the Bibliotekstjänst was started in 1936. This was done on the initiative of the Swedish Library Association or SAB, and this association today holds the majority of shares in the Swedish Library Bureau. The Swedish Federation of Municipalities, the organisation for Swedish communities, also owns some of the shares. The Swedish Library Bureau is run as a completely independent business undertaking.

The Danish Library Bureau was founded three years later on the 1 April, 1939. It was established as an independent institution and is run as an ordinary business.

The Norwegian Library Bureau took its present form on 4 February, 1952. The Norwegian municipalities own 85 per cent of the shares and the Norwegian government, the Norwegian Federation of Municipalities, and the Norwegian Library Association own the remaining 15 per cent, with the government holding the majority of these. The Norwegian Library Bureau is therefore run as a public co-operative with the limitations this involves.

The Finnish Library Bureau was founded in 1956 and is primarily owned by the Finnish Library Association. It, too, is run as a normal business.

IV WHAT DO THE LIBRARY BUREAUS DO?

There are, naturally enough, certain differences among the library systems in the Nordic countries, and these influence their Library Bureaus. However, their activities can be roughly classified under the following six headings:

1. Centralised cataloguing and classifying
2. Publishing activities
3. Binding/rebinding
4. Purchase/sale of books
5. Data processing
6. Materials, equipment and furniture

1. Centralised cataloguing and classifying

Centralised cataloguing and classifying are, of course, primarily concerned with the national book production, but the Library Bureaus also catalogue and classify foreign books and periodicals to a considerable extent, in Denmark and Sweden at least.

In connection with centralised cataloguing, printed catalogue cards are produced. These are sent to the libraries either separately or together with the books which are purchased. There are subscription arrangements so that the libraries can have a card for each book, which is catalogued independently of the book purchase. These subscription cards are sent out regularly - once a week, for instance. When books are delivered, the necessary number of catalogue cards are always included, and the books are equipped for library use.

The production process for catalogue cards can vary somewhat. One method which has been used for a good many years, is offset printing, where eight or twelve cards are printed at the same time. Catalogue cards are also produced directly from data machine printers, or by way of magnetic tape and photo-setting.

In connection with catalogue cards it should be mentioned that several periodicals are analysed according to subject and given a classification number. This information is printed on catalogue cards to which libraries can subscribe.

It goes without saying that the central cataloguing which is done by the Library Bureaus has an enormous significance for the libraries. The work of cataloguing and classifying is practically eliminated, at any rate for the smaller public libraries and school libraries. In the course of a year millions of catalogue cards are sent out ready to be placed directly in card catalogues in libraries across the country. A tremendous amount of work is saved for the individual libraries.

The uniform system which comes from centralised processing is also of importance for effective inter-library loans, in other words, the introduction of UBC (Universal Bibliographic Control) and UAP (Universal Availability of Publications).

With the introduction of data machines in the libraries, it has also become apparent that uniform cataloguing methods have brought about enormous financial savings.

2. Publishing activities

The amount and type of publishing activity within the Library Bureaus in the Nordic countries varies a good deal. The Danish and Swedish Library Bureaus publish the greatest volume of material.

In the following areas services are offered to the libraries, - both for children and adult readers.

a) Catalogues of fiction and non-fiction literature
b) Lists of reference works
c) Author biographies with book lists
d) Posters and advertising aids
e) Bibliographies - for example, national bibliographical works (books, articles from periodicals, newspaper items)
f) Technical and professional handbooks for library staff
g) Talking books for the blind and visually handicapped - two of the Library Bureaus produce these

The experience gained from the publishing done by the Library Bureaus shows that it is very difficult to make this activity economically viable. The range of publications depends, therefore, to a large degree on the public support available.

3. Binding/rebinding

a) Binding

All the Library Bureaus in the Nordic countries bind new books. It has become evident that the publishers' bindings are very often not strong enough to stand the relatively hard treatment to which library books are subjected. A considerable number of the books handled by the Library Bureaus are bought unbound as far as possible and are bound in the Library Bureaus' own binderies. Some books having

the publishers' binding can be sufficiently reinforced by using, for example, contact plastic.

A problem common to all is the binding of books with glue alone, something which unfortunately is becoming more and more common. It is extremely difficult for the book-binderies in the Library Bureaus to do anything with these books.

Another question which presents itself in connection with book binderies in the Library Bureaus is profitability. The size of printing and bookbinding companies in the Nordic countries has been growing larger in recent years. The number of books in a print run is increasing likewise. The number bought by the Library Bureaus for delivery to the libraries makes up only a small part of the total edition. The cost of production in the Library Bureaus' bookbinderies will therefore be relatively high compared to the cost of pro-cuction the publisher had paid - and consequently there will be certain problems in establishing a price for the libraries.

d) Rebinding

The Library Bureaus' bookbinderies also rebind older used books. Rebinding has, however, become so expensive that we are less and less able to do it. If the book is still available, it is in many cases less expensive for the library to buy a new copy.

There are nevertheless a good many periodicals and other printed matter that must be bound - even though some libraries have started microfilming older periodicals.

4. Purchase and sale of books

The Library Bureaus in the Nordic countries buy books in large consignments for later sale to libraries. Buying in quantity gives a good discount and the libraries reap the benefits. The Finnish, Norwegian, and partly the Swedish Library Bureaus buy books without orders having been placed

by the libraries. The Danish system relies on advance orders from the libraries and only the ordered number of books are bought for binding and processing. A centralised and uniform equipment of library books is achieved - so that they can be placed directly on the shelf when received or be lent out immediately. This is because the books are equipped with a sufficient number of catalogue cards, a pocket and bookcard with author, title and, if necessary, classification number printed on them, and a date label. For the libraries which have gone over to automatic lending systems, the books are equipped with a machine-readable label. Many libraries use a light pen to register books.

Delivery of books is usually direct from the Library Bureaus to the libraries. However, from the Danish Library Bureau, books are delivered via the local book dealer.

Another important aspect of centralised buying of books is that evaluations of the books can be made centrally. In this way annotated book lists may be sent out together with the book offers.

These annotations can either be written by special reviewers engaged for this task (one or two per book), or they can be the result of team work done by special committees, as for instance in Norway for book placements in the school libraries. These short book reviews are undoubtedly a big help to those who select books in the libraries.

Finally, it may be of interest to note that the Norwegian Library Bureau has a status as an ordinary book dealer - and that it can also obtain most older books, both Norwegian and foreign, that are ordered.

5. Data processing

The work of introducing data techniques in the libraries has not progressed equally in all the Nordic countries, but great attention is being paid to these questions. Without

going into detail, it should be mentioned that integrated library systems are developed and function on the initiative of Library Bureaus in the Nordic countries. Bibliographical data banks have been started,so that libraries which are part of the system can make use of the bibliographical information which is in the bank. An example of the type of information available is the location of which library holds a certain book. Automatic lending systems are also developed and in use in many libraries. The lending systems are based mainly on the borrower's name and number , the title of the book being recorded by light pen from a label in the book. The recorded material is processed in the data machine.

6. Equipment and furniture

The libraries need a good deal of special equipment and furniture. Equipment for lending books, date labels, book pockets, lending bags, registration cards, and notice cards are some examples. Also needed are a number of record books and forms, as well as assorted information posters and signs for use in the libraries.

It is natural for the Library Bureaus to produce and sell these things. Production and sale on the open market would be disproportionately expensive, since the libraries do not require these things in great quantity.

This also applies to a certain degree to the furniture and fixtures in the libraries. A great deal of special furniture adapted for use in libraries is needed. The Library Bureaus both develop and sell this kind of equipment.

V THE LIBRARY BUREAUS' BUSINESS OPERATIONS

It appears that the management of Library Bureaus can offer relatively serious problems. In normal business practice capital for investment and the development of new products is needed. The Library Bureau must very often try to raise this capital from profits.

This can, however, result in the prices of certain products becoming so high that the libraries prefer to buy products which are not specially adapted for use in libraries, but which are so close that they can be used. This applies especially to furniture and fixtures. The Library Bureaus here come into direct competition with private manufactures who can operate on a larger scale.

Another condition which has created problems for the Norwegian Library Bureau is the question of the decentralisation of the population. Various efforts have been made to relocate companies from highly populated centers to more thinly populated communities. One of the intentions is to create more jobs in the thinly populated areas. This has influenced the Norwegian Library Bureau's sale of books to libraries. Some people now believe that the libraries should buy their books from local dealers. They say that this will ensure better business for the book dealers and at the same time benefit local government in the form of taxes. The same ideas can be applied to the sale of bookshelves and other furniture for the libraries. There is a clear appeal from the municipalities to use local shops. However, there is a conflict of interests here. You will remember that the municipalities own the Library Bureau - the institution which obtains the discounts and other advantages from which the municipalities benefit. One gets the distinct impression that the municipalities do not have a thorough understanding of the savings a centralised system can give.

Up until now, these factors have not had a decisive influence on the Norwegian Library Bureau's sales, but the problem is still there.

VI EXPERIENCES WITH LIBRARY BUREAU ACTIVITY IN THE NORDIC COUNTRIES

The development which has taken place in the Nordic countries involving the establishment and expansion of Library Bureau activity seems to indicate that it is considered profitable

to offer centralised service to the libraries. However, there is as yet no conclusive proof.

In certain areas I believe it is correct to say that it would be almost impossible to operate without a centralised service. I have in mind, first of all, the centralised cataloguing and classifying of books and the centralised production and distribution of printed catalogue cards. The value of this work cannot be measured in money. The introduction of Dewey's cataloguing system and the centralised cataloguing of books in Norway in 1902 have undoubtedly been two of the main supports in the development of the Norwegian library system. These things are the very core of the Norwegian Library Bureau's work today. The maintenance of a common classification and cataloguing system of an acceptable standard would be next to impossible without this centralised service.

The centralised purchasing of books and collective binding is also very important for the libraries. An important part of the libraries' funds go, as you know, to the buying of books. Great savings can be made if the books libraries buy are properly bound and can stand a large number of loans. It is not just the price of a book that counts, but also the time and the work involved in preparing the book and introducing it to the system. With the introduction of data processing both the centralised cataloguing and the centralised binding of books will prove to be very advantageous.

The Library Bureaus have also played an important part in the development and supply of bibliographical aids. In fact, these aids cannot be developed by institutions outside the common library system. The same goes for the development and supply of the material and equipment needed for the libraries' work - library cards, pocket cards, record books, forms etc.

The one activity that may be properly questioned is the development and sale of bookshelves and other furniture to the libraries. It is evident that the Library Bureaus are

well qualified to develop and market appropriate furniture, bookshelves and other equipment. But the great expense involved in development causes problems.

This expense must be covered by the price of the product. Because relatively small quantities are produced, library furniture and equipment offered by the Library Bureaus will often be very expensive. In order to run this kind of business profitably, it is necessary to operate on a larger scale - which at the same time increases the risk.

There is a solution to the problem. The products could be designed and developed by professionals in the Library Bureaus and the actual production turned over to private industry. Part of the decentralisation problem could be solved by giving this work to factories throughout the country.

Conditions for the Library Bureaus are likely to vary, among other things because of differences in the libraries' financial situations.

All in all, one thing is certain. The Library Bureaus in the Nordic countries are here to stay and it is a pleasure to find that similar institutions are continually being established in other countries.

VII ROUND TABLE OF NATIONAL CENTRES FOR LIBRARY SERVICES

The international forum for Library Bureaus should also be mentioned - The Round Table under IFLA. This Round Table now consists of representatives of Library Bureaus in ten countries. The main purpose of the establishment was to strengthen the contact between the existing Bureaus in the different countries. In this way we would have better opportunity to develop closer co-operation through exchange of experiences and information.

The Round Table meets twice a year, once at the IFLA General Council Meeting and once in the spring.

Different types of meetings are arranged. One is always open so that people interested in our work can attend, others are closed business meetings. Last year for instance in Strbske Pleso, 20 representatives from 13 countries attended our open meeting, in addition to members of the Round Table.

Several working groups consisting of staff members deal with special functions, for instance catalogue card production, audio-visual media, books for the handicapped and literature for immigrant workers.

Finally I ought to mention that seminars, combined with visits to Bureaus of various countries, are planned by the Round Table for representatives from developing countries. The Chairman of the Round Table has in this connection taken an initiative to establish a fund to finance projects in developing countries. This is a very good idea and I hope it will soon show practical results.

CENTRALISED SERVICES FOR LIBRARIES: THE AFRICAN EXPERIENCE

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My paper will be mainly concerned with East Africa, which consists of Tanzania, Kenya and Uganda. If centralised services for libraries are to operate effectively, a high level of co-operation among the countries concerned is required. In East Africa the matter of co-operation has been discussed many times. In 1968 in Tanzania and in 1970 in Uganda, at the East African Librarians' Conference the issue of co-operation (including centralised services for libraries) was discussed at great length.

I INTERLENDING OF LIBRARY MATERIALS

There is a great need for libraries to co-operate in order to maximise the use of their collections. As Mr. E.M. Broome has put it: "while it may have been possible before 1900 to contemplate a single library able to house a complete collection of all relevant printed material, this is already impossible now that the volume of printed matter has reached such dimensions. No library can stand alone and this is even more true in a developing country with limited book resources. The material in all libraries in the nation must be linked together and made available in any one of them as the need arises".[1)]

Inter-library lending can be made possible through a centrally maintained union catalogue which facilitates the location of materials. However, Tucker Lwanga, Librarian of Makerere University, has outlined ways and means of creating a union catalogue and the resultant problems: "Even with such a gigantic

record of holdings there would still be no guarantee that a particular book or journal that I might want is going to be found. The reason being that no mechanism exists for anticipating my needs and for making certain that some library somewhere will satisfy my needs.

Locating devices are certainly important in mobilising the resources of a great many large and diversified libraries, but they still lead only to books which exist in those libraries as a result of the independent and uncoordinated acquisitions policies of each of them... We should, therefore, bear in mind that in planning the establishment of formal interlending library co-operation, equal emphasis must be placed on both interlending and co-operative acquisition schemes." [2)]

Library co-operation in East Africa includes not only interlending of library materials, photocopying services and publication exchange arrangements but also union lists and other bibliographical activities. There are no formal agreements governing interlending. Co-operation is, however, impaired by the absence of an inventory of resources which can facilitate the location of specific titles as and when they are needed.

The issue of whether or not co-operation should be voluntary (informal) or involuntary (formal) is a difficult one. Tucker Lwanga is convinced that inter-library co-operation in each country should be backed by legislation, otherwise it will not work efficiently. However, he says that the legislation should be based on the principle of co-ordination rather than control. He does not support the idea which has been circulating among librarians in East Africa, that a national library or any other type of library can control the work of all other libraries in the country. I agree with Tucker Lwanga that co-operation in each country should be backed by legislation. However, I think that, rather than the law being based on co-ordination, it should be based on control. My experience is that unless there is firm control, the system

does not work properly. After all, if library co-operation is for the benefit of all, why base it on the desire to co-operate - which is subject to individual whims or personalities who may or may not wish to co-operate? Of course, inter-library co-operation at regional level can only be a matter of voluntary co-operation because each nation is sovereign.

II CENTRALISED SERVICES

I shall now give a few examples of centralised services at the regional (East African) level which used to operate or are still in operation.

1. In 1956 the East African Library Association was formed with the following main objectives:

(a) to encourage the promotion, establishment and improvement of libraries and library services, and

(b) to improve the standard of librarianship and the status of the library profession.

The Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania Library Associations were affliated to the East African Library Association. However, by 1971/1972 the national library associations broke away from the parent association - mainly because the latter appeared to be inactive and the national library associations felt they were not receiving the services they expected from the parent association in return for their substantial yearly contributions. Since the disaffiliation of the national library associations, the biennal conferences held under the auspices of the East African Library Association have continued to be held, now under the auspices of the Standing Conference of East African Librarians. The biennial conference's membership was later on widened to include librarians from eastern, central and southern Africa; hence the new name, Standing Conference of East African Librarians (SCECSAL).

2. In the 1960s the East African Agricultural and Forestry Organisation (EAAFRO)[3] started operating a literature service for Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya. The service had its origin in 1966 when the Rockefeller Foundation, on the request of the EAAFRO, agreed to support a pilot project designed to provide scientific literature for research workers. The East African Community obligation was to meet the operational costs of the service. Using a xerox copier, EAAFRO, based at Muguga, Kenya, provided an excellent literature service for East African subscribers by regularly sending them copies of the tables of contents of leading periodicals in the natural and physical sciences. The organisation was in this way able to stimulate requests for articles of interest to research workers as well as help in the location of the articles. However, the service ceased with the dissolution of the East African Community in 1976. Proposals have been made in Tanzania to set up a similar service at the Faculty of Agriculture and Veterinary Science (University of Dar es Salaam) Morogoro to serve the needs of researchers in the country.

3. The training of librarians in East Africa is centralised. The Library Training Conference in Nairobi in 1963 recommended that an East African School of Librarianship be established under the auspices of the then University of East Africa. It was resolved that the proposed School should conduct two courses:

(a) a certificate course in library studies for library assistants;
(b) an undergraduate diploma course for professional librarians. In 1974 a proposal was made for the establishment of a post-graduate diploma.

The governing body of the School is the Council for Library Training in East Africa whose members are:

(a) the Chief librarians, Universities of Nairobi, Makerere and Dar es Salaam;
(b) the Director of national library services in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania;

(c) one representative from library associations in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania;
(d) one representative from ministries of Education in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania.

The Director of the School is ex-officio and acts as secretary to the Council. It now appears that Kenya and Tanzania will establish their own Library Schools in the very near future.

In 1972 the training the para-professionals was decentralised. The certificate course for library assistants was started in Tanzania in 1972 and in Kenya in 1973. As regards the certificate course at Makerere, arrangements started in 1974 to find alternative facilities outside the main University campus.

Training in documentation work has also been carried out regionally. As a matter of fact the whole of Eastern Africa is involved. In Eastern Africa the German foundation for International Development (DSE) has perhaps been involved in documentation more than any other foreign organisation. The documentation project covers 13 countries, namely Botswana, Etiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Malagasy. Malawi, Mauritius, Somalia, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia. The 1973 International Conference on the Development of Documentation and Information Networks in East Africa is worth remembering because in a way it established the framework for future development. Organised in Nairobi by the then East African Academy in co-operation with the German Foundation for International Development and with the assistance of Unesco, the conference discussed ways and means of stimulating a rapid development in documentation in the East African region.

The main recommendations adopted by the Conference were as follows:[4)]

> "Recognizing the importance of empirical information and data in the process of economic and social development in developing countries, the conference recommends

(a) that governments of developing countries should urgently formulate national documentation policies and integrate them in the national development plans;

(b) that each national government should create or cause the creation of an information unit in each ministry, statutory body and other specialised institution, to collect, evaluate, process and disseminate information in collaboration with a central agency in the same country;

(c) that a national documentation centre be created in each country with the key functions of coordinating the work of all documentation centres providing information in specific subject areas and geographical regions, collecting data and information in those areas;

(d) that the government or government chartered body be created to guide, stimulate and coordinate all information services and to establish national information priorities."

The conference recommended that formation of a Regional Committee which would be responsible, among other things, for:

(a) co-ordination and planning of documentation activities in the region;

(b) standardisation in the field of documentation in training and professional standards, manpower requirements, input and output formats, etc.;

(c) elaboration of the system design for documentation services in the countries of the East African region;

(d) advising the national co-ordination bodies on various aspects of documentation;

(e) acting, on the one hand, as the liaison agency between national co-ordinating bodies in the region, and on the other, between the region and international organisations;

(f) equitable distribution of international aid for the development of information resources and services in the whole region.

One of the recent important meetings was that held in Nairobi on 2-4 April 1979 under the auspices of the Regional Committee with its secretariat in Nairobi. The meeting discussed the vital issue concerning the draft project for a Regional Network of Scientific and Technical Information in Eastern Africa. The project is intended to implement the UNISIST programme in East Africa by helping the development of national information infrastructures and strengthening as well as co-ordinating scientific and technical information services in each country of the sub-region. Eventually it is intended to apply to UNDP for financial assistance for the project.

The application to UNDP for financial assistance for the project should have been submitted in 1975, but this was not possible because of failure to obtain endorsement from as many countries as possible as most member states, including Tanzania, had not established National Focal Points and UNISIST National Committees in line with Unesco's guidelines sent to member States in 1973. As a matter of fact, in January 1978 Unesco's list indicated that only Ghana, Ivory Coast, Morocco, Nigeria, Senegal and Tunisia had either established National Focal Points or UNISIST National Committees. Obviously it is only after establishing strong national information infrastructures that co-ordinated information structures at regional level be developed.

5. At this juncture it is also necessary to outline the bibliographical services in Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania.

a) The Makerere University Library, by virtue of the Makerere University College (deposit library) Act (1978), became a legal depository of Ugandan publications. The University library also performs the basic functions of a national library in Uganda. The University Library Bulletin

and Accessions List has included a section entitled Uganda Bibliography since 1965. It also publishes a Union Catalogue of East Africa Holdings at the Universities of Nairobi, Dar es Salaam and Makerere. For several years Professor B.W. Langlands of the Department of Geography at Makerere University published "Uganda Bibliography" with each issue of the Uganda Journal. However, there is no comprehensive union catalogue for the country's holdings - and as pointed out above - Uganda does not publish a separate national bibliography.

Another legal depository is the Uganda Institute of Public Administration. Under the Deposit and Documentation Centre Act (1968), which received the presidential assent in 1969, the Institute is entitled to receive books and all publications published in Uganda.

b) In Kenya, there are three separate laws[5] governing the maintenance of public records, the enforcement of copyright laws and the implementation of legal deposit legislation. These include the Public Archives Act and the Copyright Act - both enacted in 1966 - and the Books and Newspaper Ordinance, passed in 1960. The Public Archives Act stipulates inter alia that the Chief Archivist shall acquire, organise and preserve public records as well as control them and make the documents available for use. The Kenya Copyright Act (revised 1967) provides for the registration of copyrights of literary, musical and artistic works including films, sound recordings and broadcasts. Under the Books and Newspaper Ordinance 1960 (revised 1962) printers of books and newspapers must deliver to the Registrar General in the Attorney General's Office three copies of all books and newspapers. The Attorney General's office in turn undertakes to distribute these publications to the National Archives, the University of Nairobi Library and the Kenya National Library Service. The University of Nairobi and the Kenya National Library Service can claim legal deposit rights. Government publications are, however, not covered by the legal deposit laws. All copies of Government publications

produced by the Government Printer are sent to many institutions including Ministries, the University, the Kenya National Library Service, the National Archives, all foreign embassies and the Library of Congress Field Office in Nairobi.

Although the Nairobi University Library and the Kenya National Libary Service are individually or co-operatively in a good position to compile a national bibliography, they have not done so. The University of Nairobi compiles a Library Accessions List of Kenyan publications. Also, with the help of a computer, it compiles Periodicals in East African Libraries: A Union List - work formerly done by Dr. Robert F. Munn, Director of Libraries, West Virginia University, U.S.A. The Kenya National Library Service also compiles Accessions Lists.

The Library of Congress Office in Nairobi has since 1968 been very active in collecting local publications in English and the vernacular, including Swahili. Its Quarterly Accessions List: Eastern Africa itemises annuals, monographs, books and serials and is a valuable source of information. Although the Library of Congress office in Nairobi has established an acquisition programme which also covers Ethiopia, Malawi, Mauritius, Somali Republic, Sudan, Tanzania and Zambia it appears to have a significant retarding influence on the production of a separate Kenya National Bibliography by local organisations. As Sue Brothers put it, "the establishment of an indigenous capacity to perform the national bibliographic function would entail considerable expense and largely duplicate the work now being done by the Library of Congress at no cost to Kenya." It therefore "seems reasonable to continue to direct available resources to support other types of libraries which under present circumstances warrant higher priority."[6)]

c) Let us now look at the bibliographical situation in Tanzania. The Tanzanian government passed the Libraries (Deposit of Books) Act in 1962. This Act requires every printer of books or other publications in Tanzania to deliver

at his own expense one perfect copy of the book or publication to the Deposit section of the library of the University of Dar es Salaam within one month of the day on which the book or publication is first delivered out of the press. Later on, under the Libraries (Deposit of Books) Order (1963), every printer was required to deliver an additional copy to the Director of Library Services at the National Central Library in Dar es Salaam. However, this order was repealed in the new 1975 Tanzania Library Services Board Act. Under section 5(2) of the Act it is "the duty of every person who prints or produces or causes to be printed or produced in Tanganyika any book or other literary work intended for sale or public distribution or exhibition ... to supply the Board, free of charge, not less than two copies of such book or other literary work". Since 1969 Tanzania has compiled the National Bibliography of Tanzania which is based on the local deposit materials at the National Central Library and the Library of the University of Dar es Salaam. The compilation of a retrospective bibliography covering the years 1964-68 inclusive has also been completed and is shortly to be published.

Tanzania Library Service has also compiled Periodicals in Tanzania Libraries: A Union List. This is a list of periodical holdings in libraries of ministries, parastatal organisations and other institutions. Except for the periodical holdings of the Library of the University of Dar es Salaam, these holdings were not listed in the Munn's publication.

Thus, by using the Union Lists of periodicals produced by Tanzania Library Service and the Library of the University of Nairobi, it is possible to have a fairly comprehensive union list of periodicals in East Africa. Reference has already been made to the Library of the University of Dar es Salaam as a legal depository under the Libraries (Deposit of Books) Act (1962). In the absence of a Tanzania National Bibliography before 1969, its Quarterly Bulletin and Accessions List acted as a national bibliography and since 1966 it has been supplemented by the "Tanzania Bibliography" published

in Tanzania Notes and Records, a scholarly journal of anthropological studies.

d) There are many problems which hinder effective bibliographical work in East Africa. Some of these drawbacks already outlined by S.I.A. Kotei are [7]

(i) scarcity of professional librarians, bibliographers and documentalists assigned especially to bibliographical work;

(ii) inadequate legal depository laws and the failure to enforce them;

(iii) the embryonic state of publishing, printing and book distribution which tends to impede free flow and access to literature;

(iv) the lack of a national bibliographic centre in each country.

As can be seen, there is a need to improve the bibliographical situation in East Africa. The important role played by foreign organisations in this respect is very much appreciated.

The Accession list: Eastern Africa of the Library of Congress is a very valuable bibliographic tool. The Standing Conference on Library Materials in Africa (SCOLMA) through its Area Specialization Scheme has produced very useful bibliographies. The University of Sussex in England, whose area of interest covers Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, has compiled valuable bibliographies. African Studies Associations and Institutions in United States of America, United Kingdom, Scandinavia and other countries have also played an active role in this area.

In a way, in addition to the fact that foreign organisations have the necessary finance and manpower to do bibliographic work, it is inevitable for other reasons that African nations should rely on them. As Angela Molnos [8] has rightly pointed out, "there is no doubt that the greatest and most complete collections of documents on Africa are still kept outside. This is the result of a long history of African studies carried out almost exclusively by non-African travellers,

missionaries, civil servants and scholars. They spent varying long periods of their lives in Africa, went back to their respective countries where they wrote down their impressions ... Some or many of them (one does not know) also took home original documents, manuscripts and records they found in missions and offices along their African ways."

III LESS DEVELOPED SERVICES

It will be noticed that, up to now, I have outlined the kind of services, that can or could be provided in East Africa nationally or regionally on a centralised or co-operative basis. Such centralised services which are provided for libraries in Scandinavia do not, unfortunately, exist in our countries, and if they do exist at all they are not as developed as those in Denmark, Norway, Sweden or Finland. We really envy them for such services. We have been told that library bureaux in Scandinavia generally offer the following services:

1. centralised cataloguing and classification;
2. publishing activities;
3. binding,
4. purchase and sale of books;
5. data processing;
6. manufacture of equipment, furniture and library materials.

Let us look briefly at the East African situation with regard to these services. Because these supporting services are not fully developed nationally or regionally, we are facing many problems.

1. Cataloguing and Classification

Individual libraries do their own cataloguing and classification. "Centralised cataloguing", as Michal Wise has pointed out, "is an obvious saving in skilled labour by performing from one centre the work that otherwise will be repeated, with variations, all over the area served". "And the variations in cataloguing", he continues, "may cause confusion sometimes when libraries communicate with each other".[9]

As far as classification is concerned, there are two or more classification systems used in any country.

2. Publishing

Most university libraries have "technical services" which can take care of the publishing of some of the university material - but not all. Other types of libraries, normally, have to use outside commercial services which, besides being very expensive, are not efficient.

3. Binding

Here again university libraries are in most cases better off than other types of libraries, in that they have their own binding units. Most public libraries and other types of libraries do not have binding units and have to rely on commercial enterprises whose services are financially prohibitive and often not up to standard.

4. Purchase of books

Bulk orders of books and other library materials are made by major libraries (university and national library services) directly from suppliers abroad, rather than through bookshops. Ministries purchase books and other library materials through Crown Agents, a very bureaucratic process. There is thus no centralised purchase for all libraries. As a result there is very little discount offered on the small, independent orders made by various institutions.

5. Data Processing

This is one of the least developed activities. Generally speaking, almost everything is manually operated and there are no bibliographical data banks as such.

6. Manufacture of equipment, furniture and library materials

Here again, there exist no well-established enterprises comparable to library bureaux of Scandinavia. Libraries have to depend on 'outside' organisations for the supply of equipment, furniture and library materials. Furniture and stationery are not only expensive and do not fit the specifications demanded by libraries.

In the final analysis, therefore, there is a lot to be learnt from Scandinavia by African countries. Not only do centralised services result in savings through large-scale operations - they are a major factor in the high standard of library services offered by the Nordic countries. However, African countries realise that for regional services to operate effectively and successfully political stability, goodwill and co-operation are essential among the countries concerned. After all, doesn't everything, including economics, depend on politics?

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Chapter V

THE ROLE OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN THE TRANSFER OF INFORMATION

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I INTRODUCTION

I do not think there is only one Nordic point of view of the role of public libraries in the transfer of information - I believe there are many. Consequently, I can only approach the topic from one angle: my own personal one. In this short paper I shall concentrate on one particular type of information, community information, and on one kind of public library involvement, the establishment of community information services - issues which have played a major part in discussions among Nordic public librarians during the past few years. There is no agreed definition of community information, but a useful one is that community information is the part of the information flow that individual or groups of individuals need in order to support private survival, to pursue interests in public policy and to influence political decisions. In this sense, community information may be information from central or local government to the public, from the public to authorities or information generated by individuals or groups in a community.

I intend to start with some initial remarks as regards the role of information in society today, focusing on issues of a political and social nature; I believe that there are implications in the processes of information transfer themselves which we tend to neglect when talking about information and the role of the public library and the librarian. However, they are central to our profession and if we do not face them we are not likely to provide an effective service. I shall

also deal with the role of the public library today and outline some alternatives open to the public library in pursuing the objective of putting information to work - which is what the whole thing is about.

II THE ROLE OF INFORMATION IN SOCIETY TODAY

During the last decade there has been a growing appreciation of the importance of information - information not only in terms of scientific and technical information confined to the scientific community, but as Anderla puts it in Information in 1985, "information as a resource, a resource as fundamental as energy and matter, which affects all human activity, and as an indispensable, irreplaceable link between intellectual and material activities. This overall concept of information is bound of course to lead to one conclusion, namely that information must be at the service of the whole community, i.e. particular institutions and social groups and individuals in general." [1)]

It is the concept of NATIS, however, which has made the most important contribution to the overall concept of information, stating in its Objective No. 1, A national information policy, that "information is an essential part of a nation's resources and access to it is one of the basic human rights. Information is not only a national resource vital for scientific and economic progress, but also the medium of social communication. The personal, vocational and social development of the individual depends on the amount, quality and accessibility of information to such a user. The ultimate aim of an information policy must, therefore, be an informed society".[2)] Thus the concept of NATIS - the "theme for the 1970s" as it has been labelled - suggests that the user, the raison d'être of any information system, should be not only the specialist in science and related activities, but is understood as the specific individual at all levels in any human activity from the researcher to the worker to the humblest farmer.

Clearly, this represents new thinking, but as to the full appreciation of the importance of information, both in

industrialised and in developing countries, there is still a long way to go; it is to be hoped that the NATIS concept will show its power and remain the theme for the 1980s and 1990s too.

Having stressed the significance of these concepts of information, I should like to point out that they treat the problems of communication of information on a very general, ideal and - I think - naïve level, leading to an unquestioning, uncritical acceptance of information as a vital resource, as the currency of democracy, as uncontroversial - "a good thing" - and the idea that information reduces uncertainty, even that information is power. Underlying such statements is the assumption - and it is shared by most librarians - that an improved and increased flow of information will lead to a better democracy, an informed electorate, increased participation, greater equality and so on. I myself am not so optimistic; it is my belief that information is a necessary precondition, but it will never be sufficient in itself in achieving these aims.

Let us take a second look at some of the above statements - for instance that information is a vital resource; I think we can all agree on this, but we have to dig deeper in order to understand fully the implications of such a statement. I feel that the main problem when discussing the processes of communication of information is that we tend to look at them as if they were operating in a vacuum, isolated from their social, political, economic and cultural context. They are not and should not be treated as if they were isolated; because we fail to realise this, we tend to have a very strong belief in the value of information; we are talking about the information-rich and the information-poor and about information as a means to bridge the gap. I suggest an information policy derived from such naïve beliefs will never achieve its objective, an informed society; I shall try to explain why. Most often the information gap is perceived as resulting from unequal access to information. This is only a half-truth; "the information-poor" are poor in other respects too, because of their social class background, their position

in the market, their education, their economic and leisure-time conditions, their linguistic abilities - all important background factors which affect information use.

At this point I should like to introduce the concept of political resources which has played an important role in Scandinavian social research during the last decade. It should be mentioned that this concept has certain shortcomings: it deals solely with the individual citizen's possibilities of influencing political decisions, thus neglecting collective organisation as a political force. Moreover, it focuses on participation in the "open" democratic process, thus neglecting what has been called "the second face of power" - the non-public "invisible" sector. But in spite of this it is still a useful concept.

Every investigation into the distribution of political resources - and by political resources I mean resources which enable citizens to participate in the democratic process and to defend themselves against administrative decisions; resources such as education, income, and information - shows that they are unequally distributed in a systematic way, the typical resource-poor being working-class people, housewives, recipients of supplementary benefits and old-age pensioners. The distribution has a cumulative effect in that people with few resources are generally less able to participate in public policy. The relationship constitutes a vicious circle, or what has been called "the Matthew effect", referring to a text from St. Matthew's gospel: "For the man who has will always be given more, till he has enough to spare; and the man who has not will forfeit even what he has". This is true of information too: there is every indication that there is a strong correlation between the ability to understand and use information and socio-economic position.

This leads us to some important conclusions; the first one is that we must add a clause to the NATIS statement, namely that although information <u>is</u> a vital resource, it is a resource which the individual possesses <u>by virtue</u> of his possession

of other resources. Information is of no value in itself to the individual without the ability, i.e. resources, to use it. Bearing this in mind I think we must realise that the information gap cannot be bridged by information alone, that improved informational activities aimed at the resource-poor will only have a small impact because the problems of access to information and information use are structural and fundamental.

Another conclusion which can be drawn is that if we limit our library service to providing only information, we shall not be considered very helpful by our users. Librarians who want to deal solely with information may have a difficult task ahead of them. Such "objective" information may not be possible in the arena of the average citizen's information environment; people have varying capacities to help themselves and many people need more than just information or even advice if they are to solve their problems; less articulate people cannot be left to their own devices armed with nothing but a leaflet or a piece of information which has not been interpreted to suit their needs. Therefore there ought to be a trend to move from the provision of information to its use, i.e. information and action. Information is not power, but information plus the ability to use it, to turn it into useful knowledge, is power!

Another statement I should like to return to and examine further is that information is - almost by definition - something valuable or "good" which the library should disseminate to the public as effectively as possible. I do not think this reflects the true nature of things.

During the post-war period a vast amount of money has been spent on information; a range of reports, legislative measures and information offices have seen the light in many countries. This raises an important question: what is the purpose of information produced and disseminated by the State, and whose interests does it serve? Of course, there is no single answer to this question; the answer depends very

much on one's perception of the nature of society - it is basically a political question.

From one point of view, increased information from authorities to the public can be seen as something valuable and indispensable, as contributing to an increased understanding and harmony, thus counteracting the feeling of powerlessness and alienation caused by the complexities of modern society. It serves a range of purposes: it is a means to steer societal development, to change or reinforce the citizen's own assessments, i.e. to guide the implementation of political decisions most effectively; it is necessary to inform the citizens about their rights and responsibilities because inadequate knowledge frequently results in criminal offences and low take-up of welfare rights - the guarantee for the function of the rule of law. Moreover, it is preferable to motivate people to act appropriately by means of information strategies rather than using legislative measures or law enforcement, for instance in areas of energy economy, road safety and crime prevention. Furthermore, the purpose is to disseminate information about the State's activities so that democratic control of the State can be maintained. A knowledge of the workings of society is a condition for influence and participation in public policy. From this point of view, community information is undoubtedly a positive and uncontroversial tool serving the interests of both the State and the public. The needs of authorities to communicate merges with the citizens' information needs. This is the idea underlying the official reports on increased information to the public both in Sweden and in Denmark.

Others hold out that these ideas are manifestations of a very narrow perception of representative democracy; the communication of information is viewed in technical terms, as a means of achieving certain ends - the acceptance or legitimisation of decisions which have already been taken - in the most effective way, thus functioning more as community persuasion than community information. Thus communication of information should primarily serve a democratic aim, not the

wish of authorities to inform the citizens effectively about decisions already made. The communication ought to be a two-way process with the State and the citizens interchanging in the roles of transmitter and recipient. In order to achieve this, some demands must be made on the accessibility and content of the information: channels with a high physical and psychological accessibility should be chosen; readability is crucial of course; moreover, the information should be many-sided, outlining several opinions as to the nature of the problem, its cause and possible solutions. It should be adapted to the needs, experience and conditions of the recipients; it should carry instructions as to where to turn to in order to express one's opinion and the names of groups dealing with the problem; and finally, the information should relate to all types of decision-making processes, but most importantly to issues which have not been decided yet.

This may be called a "moderate optimistic" solution; its supporters are under no great illusions as to the possibility of the successful implementation of their objectives due to the fact that the communication system is interrelated with societal structure; first and foremost they believe that participation must be achieved by structural and economic changes in society. And yet they believe that some inprove-ments are possible within the present system, if the tendency to view information problems from a technical point of view is abandoned.

Yet another group believes that information is a means to exercise power and social control in a society marked by conflicting interests. The reason for the State's increased informational activities is that the present phase of capi-talism, because of its method of production, passes so many ecological, social and economic burdens on to society that comprehensive social and ideological control and steering is demanded in order to safeguard the continuity of the processes of production and distribution. Thus the State's activities can only have a repressive and legitimising function.

II THE ROLE OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY TODAY

We as librarians must realise that there are differing views as regards the purpose of the State's information activities and we ought to consider very carefully what kind of service we are providing. Are we concerned enough about the content of the information? Do we ask whether it serves a democratic or a legitimising purpose? No doubt much information is purely dis-information or propaganda, legitimising decisions already taken; do we want to accept that uncritically? Do we want our public library to be simply the public relations office of central and local government - or do we want to emphasise our democratic role by providing counter-information to groups challenging official policies? These are basic questions which we have to face; I feel that there is a trend both in Sweden and in Denmark to establish so-called community information services in a library setting which function as public relations offices for the local authority. I think we should leave that business to the local authority; it is not a task for a public library. What, then, is its task? Before trying to answer this I shall for a moment turn to the role of the public library in society today. I believe it is entering into a period of transition. At the turn of the 20th century, the needs for information from the growing area of society represented by research, technology and industry increased by leaps and bounds, but librarians failed to respond to the demand and scientists moved in to meet the needs. As Shera has observed: "So deeply steeped have the librarians become in the genteel tradition of their profession - conservation, popular enlightment, the improvement of taste - that they have tended to ignore the demand for information".[3)]

In the latter half of the century, history seems to be about to repeat itself. The proliferation of information and advice centres which we have seen in the Western European countries seems to indicate that the public library has failed to establish itself as an effective provider of information to the community. Thus, the gloomy prophecy of the Americans,

Bundy and Wasserman, that "librarians may ultimately find themselves left only with custodial tasks, while the intellectual aspects, as well as the more active forms of information service, are yielded to other groups"[4] has come very close to fulfilment. To put it baldly: the public library is facing a crisis of identity, expressed by the question: librarianship or information management? Fortunately the answer seems to be at hand.

A significant feature of the last few years has been a growing awareness of the need to re-orientate the service towards new goals closer related to the needs of communities. The American library educator Guy Garrison has stated that "in the public library, we have a social agency that is in danger of allowing its historic success as a purveyor of general books and reading to the public in an era of scarce information resources to become a handicap in an era of plentiful information resources. Libraries are in the information business. They are not in the business of distributing books. Public libraries have allowed themselves to become myopic, complacent, and to focus their attention on one form of information instead of moving beyond print to see the public library as the keystone agency in a complete information system. I maintain that the role most emphasised now by the public library, i.e. service to the middle level reader with current interests, should yield place to the role of information and intelligence system for the community, gathering, producing, packaging, and disseminating information".[5]

A quick glance through the Nordic library journals indicates the presence of a wind of change; in fact, the issue is considered of much importance among Nordic librarians. The initiatives taken in providing community information services and the inclusion of community information studies in the curriculae of some schools of librarianship are all manifestations of the profession's growing social commitment. In Denmark, the Library Commission has submitted the draft of its final report, in which it is recommended that the

provision of a community information service is made compulsory for all public libraries.

Although this is a happy development there is a need to consider carefully the public library's limitations and potentialities as a provider of community information services. The reasons for adopting new areas of practice should not be professional "empire-building" or impending unemployment or underemployment among the profession's practitioners; they should be rooted in a genuine conviction that the public library is able to offer a significant contribution. It is waste of resources to embark upon activities that other agencies are able to perform more efficiently and, more importantly, it is irresponsible to the users to do so.

What, then, are the limitations of the public library? One problem seems to be the marked middle-class bias of the clientele. The relationship between public library use and socio-economic characteristics has been pointed out in every major study of public library use since 1950. The figures vary a little from country to country, but the trend is quite clear: between 62 % and 80 % of the population does not use public libraries. This fact is neither new nor startling, nor has it been a matter of much genuine concern until very recently. There seems to be a serious contradiction between our ideals and our practice: we know that study after study confirms that resource-poor groups do not use our libraries, and yet we call them democratic. By serving the better-off sections of the population, we are instrumental in increasing the information gap - and this is not a particularly democratic activity.

It is a well-established fact that social class affects language code and reading ability, which in turn affects educational attainment, which largely determines social class and thus library use - another vicious circle which the library is doing next to nothing to break down. In an important British report on library effectiveness, the so-called Hillingdon report - and I refer to this study

because I find its findings to be of use also in the Nordic countries - it was revealed that the two most common reasons for non-use given by working class respondents were "no time" and "not interested in reading". In fact the reasons are more complex; in many communities there is a strong oral tradition which does not encourage any inclination to read about how to prevent oneself from getting evicted or how to claim social security; reading is likely to be limited to the sports pages of daily newspapers or to fairly undemanding reading such as popular magazines. It is quite obvious that occupations that involve long hours, shift work, and difficult conditions will work against people finding the time, energy or motivation to search for information, education or recreation through reading. Books may well be irrelevant; TV credits or cooking instructions may well be the only graphic input registered.

However, the fact that resource-poor groups do not use public libraries does not come about through some sort of natural law; it has happened because of the provision of largely irrelevant and non-responsive services on the part of the library. The authors of the Hillingdon report have defined library effectiveness as the relationship between outputs, i.e. the services and the products of the library, and the needs they serve. In catering only for the needs of an elite, the public library has assumed a restricted purpose; this point is worth elaborating by referring to two important concepts - that of supplier-oriented or user-oriented service.[6] The former is derived from the people who supply library services and therefore usually results in the supplier's own educational and cultural goals being imposed on the service - the needs have a pre-determined boundary. The latter results in a service based purely on the needs of the community. It has been suggested that "most services are largely supplier-oriented, quite unwittingly, as when planners simply do not realise how far from their public they are - or how far they are imposing themselves on their service. The situation of a supplier-effective, user-ineffective service is common".[7] Public libraries - many of them - are busier than ever, circulation is increasing, reference departments are swamped by enquiries, but this is not an

indication of effectiveness, i.e. of the satisfaction of all relevant needs. "Libraries, whether public, school, or academic, inevitably favour those groups of the population best able to respond to that which is offered - the young, the well-educated, the more affluent, the print-oriented - and fail to address fairly the just-as-real needs of those whose response is less easy to elicit".[8] The "system" sustains itself: the supplier's and the user's goals and values are in harmony with each other. In this very limited sense, the service is effective; as a middle-class institution serving middle-class needs, the public library has been quite successful, but at the same time it is preserving - or increasing - social differences and advantages. I think the supplier-oriented service is the major barrier to public library use; hence it is a pre-requisite that this approach is departed from if the public library is to venture on the provision of relevant and responsive services to the community.

Other important barriers are factors such as attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, expectations and library experience; the findings of studies of public library use offer no room for complacency. They all reveal that "the average person does not hold strong views about libraries other than (usually) having a vague feeling that "they are a good thing", that the public library "is an institution about which many are ignorant, if not indifferent" and that "specific criticisms of them are made by non-members and members of such a kind as to throw serious doubts of their adequacy". The authors of the Hillingdon report make a final comment that is a warning to a public library system which is facing decay: "Public libraries operate on a minimum level of user satisfaction, surviving largely on the good will, low expectations and relatively easy demands of the majority of users. Public libraries do not promote themselves adequately and they dismiss unmet needs as either already satisfied or not capable of being satisfied, all too easily. There are considerable discrepancies between suppliers' and users' conceptions of what services are

offered, how they are being used. It is not the suppliers' beliefs that matters: it is not even necessarily the truth that matters: what counts is the library service that the public believe they have".

I think this is the truth about many Nordic public libraries too, ant the point is of paramount importance; it is not enough that librarians believe they are able to provide an effective community information service; they have to convince the public too. Our image is not an asset; it has to be changed if we want to assume a wider role.

III ALTERNATIVES OPEN TO THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

It has been said that the proper goal of the public library now and in the future is "putting information to work". In pursuing this goal it has a number of alternatives open to it, which I shall outline.

1. One of the activities frequently suggested is the provision of an information and referral service, i.e. the active process of linking a person with a need or problem with a service which will meet the need or solve the problem. This activity is not new to reference librarians, although it has never been performed very wholeheartedly or effectively. It is significant that librarians speak about the provision of information and referral service, whereas everybody else engaged in the business speak about information and advice services, or information and action services. An information and referral service will of course be a step in the right direction, but there is plenty of evidence that this approach is insufficient if the objective is to put information to work. The provision of reliable and accurate information is the basic function of any information service, but information on its own, though important, has limited value. Information is of little use without the knowledge, skills and power to make it effective. As mentioned previously many people are at a disadvantage because they do not possess the necessary resources to make

effective use of information. Skills such as the ability to use a telephone, to understand the information contained in a leaflet, to write a letter, or to argue a case, are not public property; it would be foolish to imagine that all citizens, armed with suitable information, would be able to deal with their problems.

The referral function presents other problems; as fas as the enquirer is concerned it is not very convenient to be told to go to some other agency, and a centre which refers most clients to other agencies may soon get the reputation of being unhelpful. Surveys have shown that "many people, when advised to seek help from another agency, do not in fact do so. This may sometimes indicate that their enquiry was not a very serious one, but it may also indicate that they have become discouraged by what may seem to them an unhelpful response, that they lack confidence in the agency to which they have been referred, or simply that they could not afford the bus fare".[10] Another problem is that many people come to seek help because they have tried to pursue their enquiry through the normal channel, and have either been unable to get an answer or have received an unsatisfactory answer. There is little point, in such cases, in merely referring the problem to the relevant agency.

It would be unrealistic to imagine that an information and referral service may be able to limit itself to the provision of mere information and referral. The experience of the British Citizens' Advice Bureaux shows that "the distinction between information and advice is less clear-cut than it appears at first sight, since it is impossible entirely to separate the two functions. Even an information centre which deals only with such mundane matters as train times or the location of local authority departments will inevitably offer advice on which train to take or which department to apply to. It is difficult to offer information without advice".[11]

Previously effectiveness was defined as the extent to which the information service satisfies the information needs of

its community. Since information needs are inextricably bound up with interpretation, advice and advocacy, librarians will fail in providing an effective service if we do not take these things into consideration. Furthermore, I think we have to realise that many people experience the same problems - they are in fact collective as opposed to exclusively individual problems. The service should therefore not deal solely with individual problems but should also encourage people to form pressure groups to take collective action in order to solve their problems.

At this point I must emphasise that I am not advocating that librarians should enter the fields of other professions. Librarians are not social workers, lawyers or psychologists and it would be improper to them to take on advisory roles in these areas. But realising that people often need someone to act on their behalf, I think we should refer them to the appropriate agencies - and make sure they get there. These have a more independent status than libraries and are therefore better able to help in a more active way; but this approach involves the problems of referral mentioned previously. A better solution would be for librarians, in the capacity of information specialists, to form a team with social workers, doctors and psychologists. I am convinced that such "multi-professional" co-operation could be a significant step forward in the provision of community information services.

2. There are other possible roles to be considered: the back-up role for community groups, residents' and tenants' associations, grassroot organisations etc., is one for which libraries are well-suited. Any group needs the backing of information-gathering and collating services to provide really up-to-date and relevant information, which the members are unlikely to have the time and expertise to collect. The library, which is in receipt of all new Acts, Statutory Instruments, law reports, etc., is in a good position to fulfil this role, and the staff with their bibliographical expertise and information-gathering experience

are well qualified to undertake it; their help can also be of great value in setting up and maintaining an information system for the group.

3. Another alternative is to establish the public library as the keystone agency in the local information network, co-ordinating activities and facilitating the sharing of information resources.

I am aware that this paper has left many important questions unanswered, such as the impartiality of the library, staffing quality and quantity, allocation of resources, the setting of priorities, the management of the service, premises, education and training, the relationship to the local authority, the types of research required and many more. The purpose of this paper is to set people thinking. I personally believe that the public library can make a significant contribution in the area of community information, but on the other hand I think we must realise that putting information to work implies more than just collecting, storing and disseminating it.

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Chapter VI

SHARING RESOURCES ON A NATIONAL AND REGIONAL BASIS: A NORDIC VIEW

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I INTRODUCTION

In the Nordic countries and in Finland - which I shall take as an example - the common use of resources is chiefly based on optional co-operation. It is not then a question of inter-governmental treaties, or, generally speaking, of written agreements between participating libraries but rather of decisions which most often are made by the libraries for given circumstances. Here lie the strengths and weaknesses of the system.

II THE SITUATION AND ORGANISATION OF RESEARCH LIBRARIES IN FINLAND

Before going any further, a few words must be said about the situation and the organisation of research libraries in this country since these characteristics are at least partially valid for the other Nordic countries:

- publications used for instruction or research purposes are to a large extent foreign in origin, especially English and American but also German, French, Soviet, etc.;
- the universities and third-level colleges, which were earlier concentrated in the region of the greater cities, have been systematically decentralised and situated in provincial locations. Generally speaking, the new universities have a fairly limited number of students;
- the libraries of universities and third-level colleges play a dominant role among the research libaries. They are also used by extra-university users, for example, industries;

- in Finland these new university libraries have been begun without the necessary resources. They are located for the most part in towns in which there is no other research library. No university library established since the Second World War has been able to function without having recourse to the collections of the older libraries.

- in Finland, the libraries of universities and third-level colleges are subordinate to the universities in which they are situated. They receive their resources from those which are allocated to the university. There is no administrative and co-ordinating body for research libraries (except the consultative council).

There is no legislation in existence to guide research libraries in a coherent system. (In Demnark, Norway and Sweden there are "state librarians" with their offices - that in Norway is the largest. However, they still do not have any power of allocation. They exist rather in an advisory capacity.)

III COLLECTIONS, STAFF, SPACE AND EQUIPMENT

At the disposal of all the users of a country or of a region may be placed the collections of publications and other material, the staff and its competence - or rather, more precisely, the work carried out by the staff - and the space and equipment belonging to each individual library. The shared use of collections is very frequent and it must be stressed that this is not even possible in all sectors of a collection. It is possible and even necessary to share staff in the course of planning a framework and while running it. The work carried out in a library and availed of by others (for example, collective catalogues, automation systems) is also a way of sharing resources. One could use the specialised knowledge of certain experts much more for the benefit of others. As for the spaces, shared use is limited by copyrights and, as far as equipment is concerned, by expense.

IV LOCAL AND NATIONAL TASKS

One may distinguish local tasks (or services) and national tasks (or services) the latter being as follows:

- acquisition, registration, upkeep and making available to users national publications (including audio-visual material)

- acquisition, registration, upkeep and making available to users adequate collections of foreign publications

- planning and developing shared systems, control of co-ordination and co-operation, staff and user training

- maintaining contact with institutions abroad

Research libraries in Finland have already had some kind of co-operation with one another between the two World Wars. During the last decade, especially, this has become unavoidable due to the enormous increase in the amount of work, which is partly due to the worldwide growth in the number of publications and partly to the expansion of the Finnish university system. These two factors have turned us in the direction of automation which demands further co-operation both on account of the large expenditure and the more precise discipline. Since it has not been possible, for economic and legal reasons, to establish a centralised network for national services, we are about to establish a decentralised system in which different national services will be divided among different institutions.

1. The legal deposit collections in Finland are six in number. This is a fairly large number; however, not all the collections are complete. For a rather long period now, all the legal deposit copies have been received and distributed and the missing ones advertised by the legal deposit office of the University of Helsinki Library (which also carries out several other functions of a national library). Since the year 1978, the cataloguing of Finnish publications for the national bibliography has been carried out jointly by the libraries of the universities of Helsinki, Turku and Jyväskylä. These also make catalogues of their own collections. It is intended to extend the results of this work in a way that will allow other libraries receiving legal deposit copies to benefit.

Putting collections of legal deposit copies at the disposal of users has not yet been instigated among the libraries. It is

intended to concentrate the inter-library lending of legal deposit collections in two libraries in Turku, each of which possesses a collection. They could also undertake the responsibility of a UAP library for the purpose of contacts abroad. This has not yet been implemented due to staff shortage. There is no co-ordinated bibliographical activity other than that which concerns the national bibliography. The various special bibliographies are either drawn up by some research institution or by the libraries. In some cases, the bibliography is non-existent. There is also only a partial record kept of the distribution abroad of the results of Finnish research. According to our plan, this ought to be among the tasks of the central libraries. However, this should be done in a way that utilises as far as possible the work carried out during the cataloguing of material for the national bibliography.

2. In Finland, as in other Nordic countries, there has been in existence since the start of the century a more or less official network of special libraries, termed more or less officially central libraries, or libraries entrusted with certain subject matters. Although mostly associated with institutes of higher learning, these libraries also serve other users, particularly industries. The function, advantages and disadvantages of this sort of network have been keenly argued during recent years in all the Nordic countries. According to a government decision in 1972, research central libraries in Finland must

a) establish a collection of publications in one or more specialised domains. The collections are to be available to all users directly or through the medium of inter-library lending

b) offer a documentation and information service

c) establish co-operative links between researchers and other libraries and institutions working in the same domain. Central libraries may share the responsibility of specialised collections with other libraries, that is to say, with "satellites".

Since 1977, there have been six central libraries, in the following domains: technical sciences, agriculture, silvi-

culture, economics, pedagogy, psychology and physical education. The central libraries have not been chosen in any order of priority but simply because in these domains there were institutions able and willing to undertake the task. (New institutions have not been created, but rather already existing libraries which possessed collections and the requisite services were given official responsibility to supply the needs of users from outside their own institution. The intention of this system was not primarily to achieve economies, but above all to ensure that every scientific domain should be cared for by some research library. It must be stressed, of course, that only a part of any collection may be subjected to this kind of collaboration. For example, general and specialised encyclopedias, dictionaries, manuals and source publications can hardly become part of this programme. They are either (for example the dictionaries) in daily use, or (for example source publications running to a large number of volumes) are difficult to consult through the medium of inter-library lending. Co-operation is most likely to be easiest in the domain of primary publications, although even here it requires greater collaboration among teaching institutions than has hitherto been found.

Unfortunately, the system of central libraries has hardly begun. Since the libraries selected have not received any allocations for their tasks, they have been unable to widen their service. The most serious drawback is the lack of a central library for the biological sciences. In this domain there is no unit large and reliable enough to undertake the responsibility.

The fact that the central libraries are libraries belonging to universities and third-level colleges leads to certain contradictions. The institutions clash whenever their libraries give priority to tasks which principally benefit users outside the institution concerned. Inter-library lending may adversely affect local services. In our circumstances, however, no other solution was practicable. The institutions in which the central libraries are situated have, of course, given authorisation to the new tasks of the libraries.

3. Collective catalogues of foreign acquisitions as well as stocks of monographs and periodicals have been published over the last forty years in Finland as well as in the other Nordic countries. During recent years, their usefulness has diminished due to delays in publication. The editing of these catalogues is currently being automated. If one were able to have "on line" access to the information contained in the more than 20,000 periodicals that exist in Finland and in a large number of new monographs, it would be of considerable advantage to libraries, even more so if one were able automatically to incorporate the MARC tapes data with this information. However, it must be emphasised that co-operation in this domain entails the use of new rules of cataloguing which will cause alterations which will be seen and felt in the work of every library.

4. It would be wrong to stress what I call national services at the expense of local services. Local services are the most important from the user's point of view and it is at their level that the work of libraries is generally judged. But, at least in the long term, one can achieve better results more quickly by developing the national services. This, likewise, in the long term frees staff from part of their work and gives them more time to render a more individual and efficient local service. A correct balance between the resources granted to the national services as against local services is the most difficult of the problems to be resolved when a national system is being considered. National services do not reach a satisfactory level, nor are they equitably utilised, unless they are strongly subsidised. Broadly speaking, this means that fewer resources remain for the local services. The difficulties are increased by the fact that valid norms do not exist by which the level of service might be determined, for example, in a library belonging to a new university.

I have given some examples of forms of co-operation. Mention should also be made of some failures to collaborate. We have seldom used for the advantage of other institutions, the competence gained by staff members in the course of special

undertakings (for example, the planning of buildings, preservation of bindings, systematic acquisition of collections, etc.)

VI PLANNING

As I have already mentioned, co-operation between research libraries in Finland goes back to the time between the two World Wars. I have also mentioned some factors which have contributed to a decrease of the independence of libraries as well as an increase in dependence on common services and on services provided by other institutions. One might also refer to means of communication, for example, or to the improved reprographic methods. There has also been a strong need felt to strengthen the relations between research libraries. In 1954, the Council for Research Libraries began its work and in 1967 the Council for Information Concerning Scientific and Technical Documentation. These were united in 1972 and are known as Tinfo, for short. Tinfo is a consultative council subject to the Ministry of Education. It functions as a co-ordinator between the different categories of users, (including those from outside the domain of the Ministry of Education) and the various institutions. It is also obliged to inquire into matters on the orders of the Ministry and to make recommendations. It does not possess administrative or economic power and the number of staff is minimal.

Since the start of the 1970s there has been a group appointed by the ministry charged with planning the automation of research libraries.

During the past 15 years, a large number of committees in addition to these permanent bodies have been studying particular problems and making recommendations. For example, mention can be made of the organisation of university libraries, libraries collaborating in the matter of acquisitions, special collections of manuals being put at the disposal of students, common rules for cataloguing purposes and the planning of documentation for different domains.

Arising out of the initiatives of these bodies and of the associations of librarians, there has been a lot of activity in Finland, even if rather haphazard, concerning the planning of libraries and centres of documentation. Although only a very small number of the recommendations contained in the thirty reports and memoranda published since 1965 have been put into practice, these have had an influence on development because libraries have sought information and predictions of future developments from their findings. Besides the haphazard and temporary circumstances of this planning, carried out for the most part on an "ad hoc" basis, it made the mistake of starting at the "wrong end". We should have begun by drawing up a programme based on principles which ought to have been submitted to the ministry at least, and preferably to the government. Such a programme was published by Tinfo at the close of 1978 - a kind of general policy programme for scientific and technical information and documentation in Finland.

VII SUMMARY OF NATIONAL LEVEL ACTIVITIES

In Finland, as in all the Nordic countries, the form of co-operation most actively pursued between libraries is the shared use of collections. It is a tradition of long standing supported by the existence of collective catalogues and the use of telex. It is the basis for the activities of the new universities. It is preferred also as it may be used without any legal agreements and even in the absence of any standing agreements.

The co-ordination of acquisitions has gone ahead more slowly. This requires unremitting effort which ought to be based on standing agreements. Basically, it cannot be really effective unless it is connected with some collaborative effort and the division of labour among the different universities. With a reduction in the number of acquisitions of primary publications - particularly of monographs - on account of the cost involved, fewer possibilities for co-ordination arise. Collaboration in

the domain of cataloguing is still at an experimental stage (excepting collective catalogues, which will take a new form). Much of the preparatory work has been carried out by the group concerned with automation and the libraries involved (for instance, the Finnish edition of the new international rules for cataloguing, automatic systems for the registration of material belonging to the national bibliography and collective catalogues). The transition to automated systems, be they in the cataloguing or the lending domain, entail such large changes in the day-to-day work of employees and everyone else that it cannot become a reality without their help and good-will, which takes time to create. Participation in shared automated systems also requires continuous participation on the part of libraries.

There are at the moment in Finland two great obstacles to the advancement of collaboration between research libraries. The first of these is the lack of a permanent body to co-ordinate and plan. The second is the lack of sufficient support by the authorities for a programme concerning the policy for scientific and technical information.

As a result, collaboration between research libraries and centres of information in Finland has been begun in a very haphazard manner with each library deciding for itself the way it will participate. The result has been that a keen need is felt for a more clearly defined framework, for more reliability and permanence and for a body that will carry responsibility for developing, co-ordinating and controlling, at least to some extent, this network service. Furthermore, we have learnt that the objectives of our activities cannot be assumed to be self-evident to everyone else and that the written support and assurance of the authorities is needed.

VIII THE NORDIC BASIS

What is the aim of co-operation on a regional basis in the Nordic situation? It may be explained as filling the gaps we find with the help of resources from the other countries. Of course, collaboration between the Nordic countries is something that is part of everyday life. They are situated in close proximity to one another. History reinforces the links between Finland and Sweden, Sweden and Norway, Norway and Denmark. The cultural surroundings and educational systems are alike and the Swedes, Danes and Norwegians can communicate with each other in their own languages. The most natural collaborators of the Nordic countries are in fact the other Nordic countries.

Nordic co-operation between libraries goes back more than 50 years. The first Nordic librarians conference took place in 1927. A more systematic co-operation has been going on for more than 25 years, on the initiative of the chief librarian at Uppsala University within the context of the Association of of Librarians in Nordic Research Libraries (NVBF). Since the beginning, the collaboration has concentrated on two domains: inter-library acquisitions and lending. Also the course for complementary training has been on the programme from the beginning. Collaboration in the domain of documentation services and research and development were subsequently begun

1. Collaboration in the matter of acquisitions - which has gained renown as the Scandiaplan - is probably the best known of the Nordic projects. The idea behind the Scandiaplan was simple: any non-Nordic publication of which a Nordic researcher might have need should be available in the Nordic countries - but works seldom used, works termed "marginal", need not necessarily be available in more than one copy. The plan is based on the existence of a kind of Nordic network of specialised libraries and on making use of their tendency to assemble more comprehensive collections in certain domains, through deeper research - for example maritime law in the case of Norway - or for historic reasons (Russian literature at the University of Helsinki library)

If one makes an assessment of the results obtained during a quarter century of endeavour, it must be admitted that the original aims have not been achieved and that neither a substantial level of savings nor a clear improvement in the quality of the collections has been achieved. The reasons for this failure are numerous. In the first place conditions of work have altered because of the advances in reprographical techniques and the existence of institutions such as BLLD. Scandiaplan has become outdated. It is a fact that we are in the process of reviving the idea - not to avoid the existence of four copies of marginal works but rather to ensure that at least one copy of principal works or periodicals is purchased. The automated cataloguing processes should increase the chances of finding out before any decision is taken. Another reason for the lack of efficiency of Scandiaplan is the fact that it has for a long time been managed by an unofficial body, the Association of Librarians. Even the current patron of Scandiaplan, Nordinfo, has inadequate strength to guide the purchases of the Nordic libraries. The local, national and Nordic responsibilities of the libraries are disputed.

Nonetheless, there have been important achievements in the work of Scandiaplan, even if these have not always been intentional. The planning and upkeep of Scandiaplan entailed continual collaboration and frequent meetings, and other Nordic projects have arisen from it. Personal contacts are the basis of a rather remarkable phenomenon, even if it is so commonplace that we seldom refer to it. The collections of the Nordic research libraries are freely accessible to all Nordic researchers. It is true that hitherto no written agreements exist and any library, even a notable one, may withdraw from this collaboration. In this event it takes the risk, at least in the long term, of losing the right to inter-library lending.

Nordic inter-library lending is facilitated by collective Nordic catalogues of periodicals (which are unified in an automated form NOSP), and by regular meetings of the persons responsible.

2. Besides the inter-library lending already established, the last ten years have seen the growing importance of collaboration in the domain of documentation and information. This began with the shared use of magnetic tapes containing American and international information systems which were usually situated in Sweden. Later, we got as far as creating Nordic bibliographical bases, training staff and users, and finally to the maintenance of a Nordic network of information transfer (Scannet).

3. As I have already mentioned, collaboration began in the context of the Association of Librarians. The inadequacy of this association for the maintenance of long-term projects was soon discovered and a Nordic co-operative body envisaged for research libraries. For a number of years, a non-government body carried out the work and it was only in 1977 that a Nordic government body, Nordinfo, was set up for the development of information and documentation and for research libraries. Nordinfo grants its funds to research and development projects on condition that they concern all the Nordic countries. Nordinfo funds may not be used for activities that are already established and operational.

Nordinfo activity is divided into three sectors:
a) acquiring, processing, preserving and disseminating documents and other material, b) information systems and transfer networks and c) training.

It has been possible because of Nordinfo to carry out research projects and gain much wider experience than before. On the other hand, Nordinfo of its very nature finds it difficult to support activities which are important from the point of view of the libraries. Among these is the continuation of contacts in order to ensure day-to-day co-operation in the domain of lending and purchasing. The results of the work of libraries are slow to appear: a project of one or two years' duration is too short for the purpose of pushing forward new processes. There is some risk that the activities commenced

by Nordinfo may cease for want of a regular budgetary continuation. This is due to a deficiency on the national basis which I have indicated: co-operation among Nordic libraries is still not accepted as one of the most important obligations and one for which they should be endowed with special funds.

4. At the outset, I remarked on the freedom of our system of co-operation which is at once its strength and its weakness. The strength is evident in the flexibility of the system which - almost without any guiding authority or code - has brought about free and open access to collections for researchers in all the Nordic countries. The weakness becomes evident with the advent of fixed systems of cataloguing and permanent and clearly-defined programmes for acquisitions. The most effective remedy under these circumstances would be a top-level Nordic authorisation (a council of ministers of education and culture) by which co-operation would be recognised as an important obligation among the other activities of Nordic libraries.

On the other hand, if co-operation had not been begun on this unassuming, practical and quiet scale, we might perhaps never have come to this point. Fear of failure and official red tape might have been too great an obstacle.

SHARING RESOURCES ON A NATIONAL AND REGIONAL BASIS: AN AFRICAN VIEW

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I INTRODUCTION

My aim is to treat the subject very broadly from the African standpoint. In developing countries in general, and the African continent in particular, resource sharing is not a new subject, at least academically speaking. A good number of personnel from developing countries have been exposed if only during professional training to the concept and practice of resource sharing. Whatever facts and knowledge gained from experience apply in developing countries in general will be found to be applicable to Africa.

In this connection I should therefore draw your attention to the IFLA/UNESCO pre-session seminar for librarians from developing countries held in Antwerp University Library from 30 August to 4 September 1977 on the theme of Resource sharing of libraries in Developing Countries. The seminar provides a complete picture of essential thoughts and action on the subject with an emphasis on developing countries.

The papers and discussions covered a wide range of topics from principles and objectives to problems and challenges to mechanics, such as processing, storage and service delivery. There was also an opportunity for discussing shared experiences. My part now is to run briefly through the entire spectrum, more as an exercise in review than on exposition.

More recently - in May 1979 - an international conference of Directors of National Libraries was held in Canberra,

Australia on Resource sharing in Asia and Oceania. In spite of the wide geographical area implied by the theme, the conference concentrated on a region where developing countries predominate. The focus was on international sharing among national libraries in the region. All aspects were examined. While each nation looks after its territory, the group of nations operate as the region they constitute in the global and geographical contexts.

The proceedings of these two important meetings have been published. They provide useful resource material on the subject and should be seen not only as analyses of the areas covered, but also as indispensible blueprint and oracle for any country in the Third World.

II RESOURCE SHARING: CONCEPTS AND PRINCIPLES

What essentially is resource sharing? It simply means extending the use of available resources to maximise their usefulness. This short definition is loaded with objectives; as summed up by Parker, "to improve the ability of the participating libraries to perform their basic functions of matching user needs and information sources"[1]. The ability of individual libraries to fulfill the prescribed objective is severely constrained by numerous factors, lack of resources like manpower, finance, and so on. Therefore resource sharing entails pooling of resources by creating an awareness of local strengths and weaknesses.

Whether conceived as a national or regional phenomenon, resource sharing presupposes that the participants have a knowledge of the available resources. At the national level libraries pool the resources within the limits of feasibility to achieve comprehensiveness, eliminate unnecessary multiplication and minimise dependence on extra-national sources. The same principle guides the regional concept up to the

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1. IFLA/UNESCO Pre-Session Seminar for Librarians from developing countries. Antwerp, Aug. 30-Sept. 4, 1977. Resource Sharing of Libraries in developing Countries. Preprint (1) J.S. Parker: Library Resource Sharing in developing countries: objectives and obstacles.

global level. To minimise dependence is not necessarily to attain parity with colleagues but in essence to have full control of local resource materials so as to eliminate failure when other partners demand the resource, and vice versa.

It therefore means that in the final analysis each participating unit is not necessarily - and for practical purposes need not and cannot be - equal to the others in quantifiable terms. Its ability to meet requests of materials it is expected to have, say native or indigenous materials, will determine the degree of its effectiveness in any resource-sharing programme. The have-a-lots can still be in comfortable partnership with the have-so-littles if the marginal needs of the former are easily met by the latter. My point here is that neither the size of the country nor its level of economic development will be determinants of its ability to enter into resource sharing partnerships in any part of the world. Therefore the developing countries need not feel excluded even if their library resources are negligible in comparison with the gigantic resources of developed countries, which in themselves are still not self-sufficient despite huge efforts. Developing countries have a significant role to play, not only towards themselves severally, but in the promotion of universal availability of materials, by contributing their widow's mites to the picture.

This idea of the symbiosis between the developed and developing countries is not a mere dream. It is inevitable in the many regions of the world where there is a geographical mixture of the two types. In the Third World, only Africa presents a homogeneous block of developing countries. Asia and Oceania represent the other face - a heterogeneous collection from Japan to Australia. Many other combinations which cannot avoid symbiosis, are possible and do exist.

Resource sharing appears to be an indispensable phenomenon in present-day life and activity throughout the world. This

truth is not necessarily restricted to the library world, but it probably holds truer there than in any other.

III THE NATIONAL BASIS OF RESOURCE SHARING

The ingredients of resource sharing were fully explored in the Antwerp seminar, where the subject was treated in all its aspects. The nucleus however is still the stock of materials, otherwise known as information sources. The identification, collection and eventual exploitation of them in a co-operative manner extends the resources of all libraries in a given country.

Both in Antwerp and Canberra attempts were made to identify some of the obstacles in the way of achieving the objectives associated with resource sharing. In developing countries there is the fundamental obstacle posed by the socio-economic underdevelopment manifesting itself in poor communication systems and facilities, shortage of funds and manpower. If these attained a viable level of development many of the problems generated by the present situation would disappear.

There may be little that librarians can do about some of these problems, particularly in the socio-economic and cultural fields. However, librarians, wherever they exist at all in larger numbers than one, can start off by initiating schemes of sharing any identifiable available resources, be they materials, facilities or manpower - the librarians themselves constituting the last one. Putting of heads together and exchange of ideas is the beginning of resource sharing.

IV MODES OF RESOURCE SHARING

A. Creating Awareness

1. Directory of Libraries

From all thoughts and discussions on the question of resource sharing it appears that the most important point is the creation of awareness of existing resources. In this connection it is logical to start from the overall facilities, and here it is the libraries themselves. Directories of libraries in each country form a vital tool for creating awareness. Depending on circumstances the details of the contents of the directory will vary from country to country. However, a bare list of names and locations of libraries is not useless. A sophisticated directory with information on the age, size, scope and/or specialisations of each library cannot be misplaced either. The effect of this is to provide the information that the facilities exist and to stimulate enquiries.

Any group of nations constituting a region can either interchange directories or directory information or, if conditions so permit or demand, pool effort and resources to produce one. One library in the region can take the initiative and work through questionnaires with the others. This is a herculean task especially if the region is large, and involves heavy finance and enormous manpower. In the final analysis we may find that the best approach is for each country to produce its own directory. The point of resource sharing here is that the members of the region need to get together initially to standardise the approach to the project and assist each other where and when necessary. In each country this task should normally devolve on the national library or any other institution that stands in that role. If each country achieves control of its territory a firm foundation will have been laid for effective regional co-operation and resource sharing, because at any point in

time any given person find information easily. Therefore the preparation of national directories of libraries is extremely important. In Nigeria the National Library initiated such an effort in 1967 and the document has since been up-dated.

2. National Bibliographies

The compiling of directories is only one activity in the system for creating awareness. Each country should produce its own national bibliography, the importance of which cannot be overemphasised particularly for developing countries. Publications from the Third World are becoming increasingly intractable in the universe of knowledge. Some developed countries expend considerable resources in identifying and collecting, documenting and storing them. This is most unsatisfactory since the original identity is lost ab initio. The items are subsumed in some other national bibliographies. It has become perennially difficult to know the intellectual output of developing countries in their own territories. Many of them embark on research to identify and perhaps retrieve it, which is sad.

Not all the blame for this state of affairs can be placed at the doorstep of the state government. There are many instances of countries where the government enacted the essential law to establish a central collection of all the publications of the country, but for lack of initiative and enterprise or other reasons the countries have been deprived of the treasury that properly belongs to them. We owe our countries this fundamental initiative, whose result will facilitate sharing of our resources, however meagre, with other nations in the region and throughout the world.

African countries have been analysed on this subject and they have taken some steps in the direction of full bibliographic control in their respective territories. In time, developing countries should attain developed status in this regard. It cannot be overlooked that some of us are worried

by the small number of materials produced as publications in our countries, particularly commercially. We have nevertheless to turn our attention towards them, because such an exercise provides the springboard for stimulating improved performance. The argument of paucity is not really plausible as there is hardly any developing country where government publications alone do not add up to a substantial number. Yet we all know that these materials are much sought after.

Another important point is that national bibliographies need not appear on the world's best paper or in extravagant bindings: it is the recording of information that counts. All national libraries have at least one typewriter. There is no shortage of stencils. Colleagues will be glad of duplicated lists rather than have nothing - no beginning is too humble. In this connection I would like to draw your attention to the African Standing Conference on Bibliographic Control. The reports of the activities in the first year are contained in AFRIBIBLIOS.

The National Bibliography of Nigeria started in 1950 as Nigerian Publications at the initiative of the Library of the University College of Ibadan. At first it appeared as a duplicated list. When the National Library took over in 1970 it was and it is still produced on the typewriter.

I would therefore address a fervent plea to all my colleagues in the Third World to embark on a concrete undertaking with the utmost urgency - the creation and sustenance of a national bibliography is the most valuable contribution of any country to the foundation of regional or universal resource sharing programmes and activities.

3. Library Catalogues

Related to national bibliographies are other bibliographical tools such as catalogues, accession lists and indexes, which libraries can produce to show the available book material

resources. Some of these are expensive and heavy undertakings and may not be easily sustained by many libraries except the largest ones. Certain libraries constitute in their own right the main national resource of their country and the publication of their own catalogues would go a long way towards providing a complete list of publications. In Nigeria, for example, the University of Ibadan Library, the oldest and largest of modern libraries, holds this position of pre-eminence, which no other single library has been able to challenge in the past three decades. In such a situation the resources of the library as represented in a published catalogue can be useful in generating a union catalogue for the whole country. In actual fact this has happened already in Nigeria: the National Union List of Serials was compiled from the base provided by the University of Ibadan Library list of serials, which was circulated to major libraries as an indication of holdings and necessary augmentation. The result is a record of the serial holdings of 47 major libraries. This is by no means a record of the holdings of all the libraries in the country because, since the cut-off date in 1975, several university and other higher educational institutions have started, all with high grade libraries.

4. Union Catalogues, Lists

The same process is applicable to a national union catalogue; this has been done in Nigeria. In this case the base was the catalogue of the National Library of Nigeria. It was not possible to utilise the resources of Ibadan because the catalogue had not been published. The union catalogue is however a vital tool of resource sharing. It has assumed a position of paramount importance in recent times since the entire world has come to find resource sharing necessary. As the foundation of the concept and practice of resource sharing in the area of interloans, the union catalogue has emerged as a major assignment for the national library of every country. It is the rallying point for resource sharing

at the national level as well as the focus in the regional network.

Union catalogues and lists are not limited to national boundaries. They are useful tools for regional schemes in subject areas. The most practicable approach seems to be for every territory to be in control of its jurisdiction. A regional framework can be evolved through interchange of the union catalogues and lists to provide information.

B. Programming

Another important mode of resource sharing is the deliberate planning of an organisational framework. This can be done on either geographical or a subject basis or both. Within a given country many arrangements are possible. There can be plans for joint acquisition in specified subjects among a specific type of libraries. For an example, in Nigeria the university libraries have a programme of joint acquisition of African government publications. In Lagos, Nigeria, some special libraries co-operate in the provision of periodicals through a scheme known as Lagos Special Libraries Information Service (LASLIS). The keynote here is planning on the basis of needs in particular areas.

In any scheme it is necessary to establish a method of communication , ranging from the use of telephones to letters, pro-forma, courier service and even a bulletin. Ancillary to this is an accounting procedure and mechanism.

C. Technical Process

The foregoing has concentrated on material resources. Processes have also been widely discussed and considerably developed in many parts of the world. Where possible certain processes are centralised. The benefit is mutual: the large libraries housing the facilities derive the benefit of fuller utilisation, while smaller libraries benefit in

terms of quicker, more efficient services and are saved the expense of setting up facilities they may not be able to utilise fully, and which they are most unlikely to be able to afford. The National Library of Nigeria provides a catalogue card service in Nigerian Government publications and other Nigeriana. This process approach can be extended to more expensive and capital-intensive areas as binding, photocopying and microfilming. Depending on the size of the country these arrangements can be organised on a national basis, or regionally within the country. The prospects for regional organisation in terms of an extra-national approach would appear rather gloomy, or at least less promising in developing countries at the moment. However, thoughts of computer data bases in regions are neither far-fetched or misplaced as this may be the only way of ever being able to finance such facilities in the foreseeable future. The possibility of establishing a regional data bank of bibliographical or scientific information deserves urgent examination. In South East Asia there is regional programme under the International Serials Data System, an example of the full utilisation of technical processes.

D. Storage Facilities

Some libraries have surplus space. This is always only a temporary condition as no library ever has sufficient space for all time. However, it is often possible for one library to house materials from another. For example, about ten years ago the University of Lagos in Nigeria was approached by the National Library of Nigeria and asked to take over on long-term loan a collection of the British House of Lords Papers. The reasons were:

(a) the National Library was fast running short of space;

(b) the materials were more frequently used by the faculty members of the University of Lagos than by users of the National Library;

(c) the University Library building was new and had some unused space.

It was therefore decided to move the collection to the library of the University of Lagos. Consequently the National Library was saved considerable space. On a national or regional level, a common depository can be constructed for use as storage depot accessible to a number of user libraries.

E. Personnel: Training and Exchange

For any number of different reasons staffing levels and calibre vary from library to library in a given country. It is important that there should be a programme for improving the quality of existing personnel through training. Continuing education is vital in all professions and should be given close attention in the library profession because this is a dynamic field where frontiers expand rapidly and techniques change fast.

Basic training, whether at professional or auxiliary level, is of paramount importance. Although not every developing country can boast of existing training facilities, there can be no doubt that in a given region of several contiguous countries there will be adequate facilities to meet the needs of any country for the time being. Two library schools served the needs of Anglophone West Africa in the 1960s and students moved across national borders to take advantage of the facilities according to their needs. Nigeria and Ghana are self-sufficient in training facilities and Liberia, Sierra Leone, Gambia and some other African countries have availed themselves of them. Therefore, even though training facilities are essentially national phenomena they can be made to serve regional needs, and in this context they constitute resources that can easily be shared. The cost of establishing and maintaining can be shared by the user countries.

In the area of continuing education, including in-service training, the bigger libraries with larger staff commonly mount courses for their own personnel. Such services could be shared with other libraries by extending invitations to them to participate. The National Library of Nigeria runs group courses for auxiliary level staff working in government ministry libraries every year. Individuals are also accepted for short periods as needed, for instance new appointees. The University of Lagos and Kaduna Polytechnic are also active in running courses for upgrading the qualifications of this category of library worker.

Teaching staff can be drawn from various libraries to augment the regular teaching staff in the institutions. This is a very common practice, and is widely adopted in Nigerian library schools and institutions where it constitutes a significant aspect of resource sharing. By such arrangements, theory and practice are brought together and the services benefit immensely from the resulting interchange of ideas and experience.

Furthermore, within each country and extending beyond to the region, exchange of staff is an invaluable mode of resource sharing. Parity is not even essential to achieve profit from the exercise. By this I mean that it is not necessary to insist on a perfect match for exchange; this insistence has prevented many arrangements and plans. Taking a typical situation in which one partner is weaker - a reflection of the status of his/her institution - there is still a great deal of mutual benefit to be had. The stronger library transfers higher skill and promotes the work of the weaker. At the same time the latter gains new skills for continuing the good work done in his/her institution by the other. It is not a perfect exchange but from the point of view of sharing, some benefit has flowed from one area or country to another, which is in accordance with the spirit of sharing.

It was therefore decided to move the collection to the library of the University of Lagos. Consequently the National Library was saved considerable space. On a national or regional level, a common depository can be constructed for use as storage depot accessible to a number of user libraries.

E. Personnel: Training and Exchange

For any number of different reasons staffing levels and calibre vary from library to library in a given country. It is important that there should be a programme for improving the quality of existing personnel through training. Continuing education is vital in all professions and should be given close attention in the library profession because this is a dynamic field where frontiers expand rapidly and techniques change fast.

Basic training, whether at professional or auxiliary level, is of paramount importance. Although not every developing country can boast of existing training facilities, there can be no doubt that in a given region of several contiguous countries there will be adequate facilities to meet the needs of any country for the time being. Two library schools served the needs of Anglophone West Africa in the 1960s and students moved across national borders to take advantage of the facilities according to their needs. Nigeria and Ghana are self-sufficient in training facilities and Liberia, Sierra Leone, Gambia and some other African countries have availed themselves of them. Therefore, even though training facilities are essentially national phenomena they can be made to serve regional needs, and in this context they constitute resources that can easily be shared. The cost of establishing and maintaining can be shared by the user countries.

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We should take a brief look at the content of courses and programmes. It appeared from the deliberations of the Antwerp seminar that the whole subject of resource sharing, formally known as library co-operation has almost completely disappeared from library school curricula since the 1950s. Its restoration was strongly urged.

Since the dependence of developing countries is judged to be the greater in this matter there is a real need for personnel to be tutored in the concepts and techniques of resource sharing.

V THE NIGERIAN SITUATION

An indication has been given as it became appropriate of the situation in Nigeria in regard to the various modes, some areas not mentioned, but which are relevant, will be touched briefly.

The National Library of Nigeria provides national services in respect of the International Standard Bibliographic Number (ISBN), International Standard Serial Number (ISSN) and has adopted the ISBD for the National Bibliography of Nigeria. It also is the initiator of a nation-wide library co-operation programme featuring interlending and co-operative acquisition. The former has been designed and put into operation in the last three years. The latter is in the process of finalisation. A survey and report have been made and will be studied by a committee which will advise the National Library on its results.

The National Library places a premium on resource sharing and attempts to practise it in various ways. For advice on several issues of national interest, professional librarians throughout the country are regarded as a national resource to be drawn upon as needed. An advisory committee recently concluded its work on the curriculum contents for a national diploma in library studies.

It is a common but erroneous notion that Nigeria is able to all it is attempting to do because it is "oil-rich". In disabusing the minds of colleagues from other developing countries of this it is necessary to remind them that many of the efforts now maturing were set in motion more than a quarter of a century ago. The national bibliography which started in 1950 (the same year as the British National Bibliography) is a case in point. It had no connection with "oil wealth", which is a mid-70s phenomenon. No country is too poor to embark on resource sharing activities. In fact low economic status alone constitutes a strong reason for engaging in it.

VI CONCLUSION

It would appear that the most fertile ground in which resource sharing will thrive is the developing countries. At this initial stage one would be inclined to counsel that it be initiated at the local level. The national library should plan the national level with the co-operation of the existing institutions. The regional level logically comes after the national units are established. Without national bases regional efforts, however well planned, are likely to run into difficulties.

Russell Bowden proposed five elements in Antwerp which he thought should be satisfied in respect of resource sharing in the context of co-operative projects of all types. They are:

> "1. an appreciation of the necessity to co-operate
> 2. an acceptance of the responsibilities involved;
> 3. the tools with which to cooperate;
> 4. the formal organisation within which to co-operate;
> 5. the basis, or national infrastructure - depending on the level of library development achieved - on which to co-operate."

I can do no more than commend these precepts to you. They seem to settle on the maxim that charity begins at home. The

home resources must be brought under full control before sharing can become possible. At the same time each library institution or unit should see its own resources in the wider perspective as part of the national, regional and eventually total human (world) resource, no matter how apparently insignificant.

Chapter VII

MAKING NEW READERS THROUGH LIBRARY SERVICE FOR CHILDREN: A NORDIC VIEW

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I BACKGROUND

The transformation of Sweden from an agrarian society into a modern industrialised nation has wrought changes in the living conditions of the people of Sweden. These changes have, in turn, had an impact on the living conditions of children and young people.

During the past decades Sweden has become rapidly urbanised and most of the population is now living in large municipal areas. The rural areas have become impoverished economically, socially and culturally.

Until the end of the Second World War, Sweden's population was rather homogeneous. Now the immigrants are an important element of Swedish society and account for about 10 per cent of the population. Today every fourth child in Sweden is born of immigrant parents. The immigrants come from about 70 different countries - commonest being Finland, Yugoslavia, Greece and Turkey. About 150 different languages are now spoken in Sweden. New cultural patterns are created and developed, which have an importance for the Swedish society.

II CHILDREN IN SWEDEN

1. General

Sweden has about 1,7 million children and young people under the age of 15 out of a total population of 8 million. Today society assumes an increasing responsibility for children and their development. During the past ten years a new motive for family policy has been added - a change of attitudes towards the division of responsibility and roles within the family. More women are now working away from home. The equality of men and women imposes demands on society to provide, for instance, day centers.

Chilren's opportunities for education have increased substantially during the 1950s and 1960s. In 1975 Sweden passed a kindergarten law, which gives children from the age of six the right to attend a kindergarten. Children with special needs may attend kindergarten at an earlier age. Sweden has nine-year compulsary schooling. Children start school at the age of seven.

On completion of their compulsory schooling, children may go on to the upper secondary school for two or three years. This offers an education which forms a basis for working life. Various reforms and subsidies have come through to aid the children and their families. Many reports and studies of children and their situation today show that children are living under very varied conditions, depending on the social, economic and cultural situation of their families.

2. Children and cultural policy

Today children's culture is at a turning point. In the mid-1960s a discussion about the cultural situation of children began. Society had until then neglected the area and nothing radical has been done to change this situation. Instead, commercial interests have been taking over this vital part of

children's life. Children are an important market for commercial interests in the cultural sector.

In 1974 the Swedish government passed a resolution on a new cultural policy. In a way this has a new orientation. The very term 'cultural policy' is now used in a new way and with quite new connotations. It implies a broader view of the role of culture in society and its connections with the whole social environment (people's living conditions, working conditions, education, leisure time etc.). Cultural equality is as important as economic and social equality.

A new authority, the National Council for Cultural Affairs, has been established. The most important task of this new authority is to promote the realisation of the objectives of the State cultural policy and further development in this field.

The background of the new cultural policy was the work of a commission which was appointed to lay a foundation for decisions on state measures in the cultural sector. The commission made a report - "A New Cultural Policy" - but this report did not examine the cultural situation of children. In 1974 a special group, the Child Culture Group, was appointed to suggest ways of catering for children's cultural needs and of asserting their right to cultural activity in the future development of of cultural policy. A special report "Children and culture", was published with proposals for action by the State in the field of children's culture. In May 1979 Parliament made a grant of 8,4 million Swedish crowns for the promotion of children's culture. The aims were:

- to give children admittance to all culture - not only children's culture
- to promote cultural efforts in children's own environment
- to promote children's creativity
- to consider the needs of underprivileged children.

III PUBLIC LIBRARIES

In the new cultural policy the Swedish public libraries have a more important role as a center of culture and information. In contrast to many other countries, Sweden has no library legislation, but public libraries are nevertheless established in every municipal unit. The number of municipal units is 277. The responsibility for maintaining the library service rests with the local authority, cultural committees and/or library boards. The public libraries are financed by local taxes.

Since 1974 the central authority for public libraries in Sweden has been the National Council for Cultural Affairs. A special department handles matters relating to state efforts in the field of literature and libraries.

The standards of the public library service vary a great deal over the country. In order to reduce discrepancies in standards between different municipal areas, the state supports the public libraries with special grants. The aims of the state subsidies is to reduce the differences in standards and to develop new library activities.

The number of libraries (main libraries and branches) is about 2000. About 100 municipalities have bookmobiles, and the number of bookmobiles is now about 125. They account for nearly 10 per cent of the total number of loans. The number of professional librarians working in public libraries is about 1800, many of them are part-time employees. Total manpower resources amount to about 5000 man-years. About 10 municipalities still lack a full-time trained librarian, and about 80 have only one full-time librarian. The shortage of staff is one of the obstacles to the development of public library services and especially of a library service for children. The total expenditure for public libraries in Sweden was 659 million Swedish Crowns in 1977. The State contributes about 19 million Swedish Crowns and the county councils a smaller amount.

Each county has a county library with a special department which supplies the public libraries within the country with advice information (conferences, courses, workshops, complementary media, travelling libraries, exhibitions, programs etc.). The costs of these services are paid by the county council. The county libraries are also supported with special state grants.

The public and county libraries may borrow books and other media through the inter-urban lending centers (situated in Stockholm, Malmö and Umeå), which arrange library loans between different library systems all over the country and from abroad.

The public library service is free of charge and, through a well distributed and co-ordinated library system, everyone in the country has - at least theoretically - access to it.

IV CHILDREN'S LIBRARY SERVICE

1. General

Sweden had children's libraries in the nineteenth century but the development of this service started at the beginning of the twentieth century and was influenced by children's libraries in the USA.

A pioneer in this field was Valfrid Palmgren Munch-Pedersen, who started the Children's Library in Stockholm in 1911. Similar libraries for children were founded at about the same time in Malmö and Gothenburg.

The progress and the success of the public library service for children has been more the result of the dedicated work of skilled children's librarians than of the public library administrators or public library policy. Children and young people have always belonged to a group of which is overlooked in our society and this is reflected in the libraries. In spite of the fact that half the visitors to the libraries are

children and that they represent almost half of the circulation, allocation of space, procurement and staffing never reflect this.

Many public libraries are still housed in old buildings and the children's departments are often only a corner or a couple of shelves. In the libraries of the 1960s and 1970s the children's department is often an integral part of the total library and special consideration is now given to different types of activities for children. The libraries nowadays are often located in shopping centres or integrated with community centres, schools or other municipal facilities. The book-mobile service has been expanding rapidly in the 1970s thanks to State subsidies. In Sweden, a largely rural country with large distances between communities, the book-mobile is a necessary complement to the library service. Children especially are using the mobile library service.

Today the importance of the children's library service is generally taken for granted. Many public libraries now try to reach the standard of service the children are entitled to. The children's libraries are taking a more active role in the community, which entails an increasing co-operation with other children's institutions, activities and organisations. The library often provides them with materials, programmes and information.

The children's libraries are now in a period of expansion. Current social, educational and cultural reforms are making great demands on the libraries. An increased awareness of the cultural situation of children in a very commercialised society gives the libraries an ever greater responsiblity in the field of cultural policy.

A lively debate is at present under way concerning the importance of language for children's development. It is language that enables the child to explore and conquer the world around him and to assert his own views. The Swedish language teaching given in schools is under review, and the

fact that too many children are leaving school as functional illiterates has focussed attention on children's reading - which, in turn, is making demands on the libraries' activities to promote reading. It is evident that library service for children so far has mostly been designed to serve those children who already are motivated to read by home experience and encouragement. Now other methods are being developed in order to reach new groups of children, especially underprivileged children. In this work, libraries are developing various outreach activities and working with other adults who are working with children. The libraries need the help of many "reading promoters", people who will recommend and pass on books, at different institutions in the schools and kindergartens, clubs and societies - everywhere that children and young people get together and can be reached.

2. School libraries

The Swedish school legislation prescribes that every school shall have a school library. School libraries exist in almost every compulsory and secondary school. The standard of this service, especially in the compulsory schools, is very uneven. The school librarians are mostly teachers without any special library training. Relations between schools and public libraries are very weak. Although various types and grades of co-operation between these two library systems exist though in some municipalities, but they mostly work quite separately.

The National Board of Cultural Affairs has made a study about various modes of co-operation between the school and the public library. There is a need for a more flexible way of using material, staff and library knowledge.

3. Staff

The shortage of children's librarians (or rather special appointments for children's librarians) explains to a certain extent the discrepancies in the library service for children

between different municipalities. Out of 1800 trained librarians only 180 are appointed as children's librarians. Most municipalities do not have this kind of specialist. A decentralised and outward reaching library service needs another kind of librarian, who function in less traditional ways - a kind of "barefoot" librarian, who can spend more time outside the library building than inside. Few libraries have this kind of librarian, who co-operate with a wide range of people in the community, to ensure that books become a part of normal life for the children in their care. Many libraries today cannot handle the large groups of children and young people who invade the library because there is nothing else to do. This situation is very common in many suburban areas. The libraries have to recruit youth leaders or other child workers to be able to give these children and young people meaningful activities.

4. Media

Swedish children do not actually suffer from a shortage of books. During the last decades there has been a rising output of books for children and young people. One problem is that more than half the published literature for children consists of translations from predominately one language area - above all from English. Too many titles are produced for sale in too many different parts of the world; the multinational children's book purged of any contents or pictures that would excite comments in other countries is all too familiar. But the fact is that in the midst of this plentiful supply of books, too many children never get the chance to reach the books they really need - books which give them possibilities to grow and understand. This is really a challenge for the libraries.

Since 1975 the state has supported parts of the book publishing industry. Also to stimulate the publication of children's books, especially Swedish picture- books, classics and translations from other language areas than the English, some 150 titles now receive state subsidies.

Books are not the only medium that exists, but it is the medium the libraries have to fight for now. Audio-visual materials entered the libraries in the mid-1960s, actually without any policy discussions. Still there are some doubts as to how to use them in a more meaningful way within the library service for children. The unchecked development of technology in mass communications does not always serve the children and their real needs.

5. Programmes and activities

The 1960s were years of expansion for the Swedish libraries. New buildings were planned and built and new media and activities were introduced. Children's libraries started to offer, beside the traditional story-telling programmes, other activities as films, living theatre, puppet-shows, music programs and so on. This was a development in response to the need to expand the services of the library and to meet new groups of people.

Today there is a tendency to slow down the development of these activities, partly for economic reasons and partly because the libraries have to give priority to other activities like reading promotions and the outreach services.

6. Co-operation

Books should be where people are. This means many of different book-collections designed for different groups and for different needs, spread all over the community. This also means lots of personnel who are trained to make these collections come alive for those who use them.

A planned co-operation with other organisations and agencies which are responsible for children and young people might give the library a better anchorage in the community. Today most libraries have neither the personnel nor the economic resources to work in this way. The co-operation is very superficial and unplanned.

Outreach services are incomplete if the entire staff of the library does not participate in this work. The children's library's outreach service has to start within the library itself: in in-service training programmes, in policy discussions of necessary priorities and of library attitudes towards children and children's library work.

7. Adults working with children

The most effective way for the library to reach new groups is through co-operation, with adults working with children. The children's librarian may assist through in-service training programmes, conferences and workshops for the staff within different children's agencies and organisations. It is important to motivate people to use children's literature in their own work with children and young people.

8. Kindergartens, schools and other children's agencies

The relations between school libraries and public libraries vary from locality to locality. Sometimes there is a mutual ignorance or even antipathy between the two library systems, but co-operation and joint planning can also be seen. The services of the public library are, however, needed as a complement to the school libraries.

Since the Parliament passed a resolution in 1974 about a preschool law, many of new kindergartens and after-school-hour centres have been founded in the municipalities. The co-operation of the public libraries with these institutions is now developing in a very positive way. The same kind of co-operation with other similar institutions and organisations concerning children is beginning or continuing.

9. Immigrant children

Immigrant children are entitled to certain tuition in their mother tongue at pre-school level and at school. As stated earlier, Sweden has immigrants from about 70 countries. Some schools give tuition in about twenty different languages.

For the libraries, this situation means new tasks. There is an ever-increasing demand for literature and other media in a number of different languages. Libraries located in areas with many immigrant groups also need staff with knowledge of the minority languages. Beside special book-collections, library programmes and activities are a way of reaching the children of minority groups. Story-telling-programmes in different languages are commonest, along with other activities where children themselves take part, like exhibitions, film and music programmes from various cultures. It is important for the children to feel a pride in their own language and culture.

The State supports municipal and county libraries financially in buying books in immigrant languages. To cope with the problem of getting books from other countries, there is a centralised importation of foreign books through the Library Service Ltd, a company which supplies services and aids to Swedish libraries.

10. Handicapped children

Children with various handicaps - physical and mental - are mostly in institutions and hospitals, although there is a tendency to integrate them in society. These children have special needs concerning the library service and materials, like talking books, a reading service and other reading aids. Efforts are now being made to provide these children with an adequate library service within the institutions and hospitals.

Swedish children grow up in a very contradictory environment. Their lives are strongly shaped by mass culture, steered mainly by commercial interests. The mass culture distracts them from other less glamorous alternatives and reduces their own initiative and creativity.

This situation gives the library a heavy responsibility in the cultural policy. The library is one of the few "safeguards" of the real cultural needs of the children.

MAKING NEW READERS THROUGH LIBRARY SERVICE FOR CHILDREN: AN AFRICAN VIEW

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I INTRODUCTION

It is in early life that a taste for books and the habit of using libraries and their resources are most easily acquired. The public library has therefore a particular duty to provide the opportunity for the informal and individual choice of books and other material by children. Special collections and if possible, separate areas should be provided for them. The children's library can then become a lively stimulating place in which activities of various kinds will be a source of cultural inspiration." - UNESCO Public Library Manifesto.

Children's libraries in Africa use methods and forms of activity which are well-known and widespread in countries throughout the world. All children - whatever their race, colour or creed - love a good story and folk-tales are universally popular. Regular story hours, talks on books, quiz games, gramophone records, film shows, slide shows, puppet shows etc. are all used in varying degrees to attract young readers to the library. Non-book materials are widely used in Scandinavian children's libraries and, given funds for the purchase of the equipment - and subject also to the availability of adequate accommodation - such materials can also be used in children's libraries in Africa where the precentage of illiterate children is very high. The majority of the children live in rural areas where books and libraries are practically non-existent. Some of these children have never seen or handled a book in their lives, as their parents are also illiterate. We must not forget that the home background of these children is a contributory factor to the problem.

I mentioned that children's libraries in Africa use methods and forms of activity which are well known in children's libraries the world over. Sadly, there are some children's libraries which are aware of all these methods and activities but cannot use them because - as you all know - these activities call for adequate funds, adequate buildings and adequate staff who are trained to work with children. Many children's libraries in Africa are practically starved of all three prerequisites. We do not only need trained professional staff: the professional training needed must go beyond the traditional disciplines of librarianship and its techniques into related areas of child psychology, reading skills and educational theory.

It may be argued that this kind of library service is too sophisticated for children in rural areas - for the African child living in the village who has never seen or handled a book in his life. This leads to another problem for African libraries - how to provide an efficient library service for children in both urban and rural areas, what kind of service to provide and what sort of books to provide. If libraries are to attract young children in the rural areas, librarians must become involved in the battle against illiteracy and must therefore ensure that all children have, firstly, the ability to read and, secondly, access to a wide selection of books at the level of their needs, interests and experience.

I shall try to make my African introduction to this subject as general as possible but will confine myself to English-speaking African countries. Being a Sierra Leonean I am naturally concerned with the problems encountered in my country; I hope you will excuse me if I use examples from Sierra Leone. Situations and problems are, however, similar in our developing African countries and therefore much of what I have to say will be of general application.

II THE SITUATION IN SIERRA LEONE

Sierra Leone has a children's department in the Central Library in Freetown but, as it is the only children's library serving a population of 116.686, it is heavily used and books are badly needed to fill the empty shelves. The children are therefore only allowed to borrow one book at a time for a period of two weeks, (although children who read a lot are sometimes allowed to borrow two books).

The Sierra Leone Library Board also operates a Primary School service for children. At present the service covers over 700 schools but we can allocate only 100 books to schools of over 300 pupils - and one school with 1000 pupils receives only 100 books. Some schools do not receive any books at all because the types of books required are not available. All these schools are serviced only once a year, and some only once in two years!

There is a high rate of discards in the area of children's books. The home backgrounds and living conditions of the majority of the children are poor and the children are not taught how to care for books. After four or five issues in some extreme cases, library books are no longer fit to be put on the shelves. Some parents have actually forbidden their children to use our library because of the condition of the books, the non-availability of the right kind of books, the general unattractiveness of the library and the paucity of the services provided for the children. We do have story-hour sessions, book talks, film shows, class visits and so on, but these are not on a regular basis.

To celebrate the International Year of the Child we mounted an exhibition of children's books highlighting folk-tales from many countries of the world, children's books by local authors as well as from various countries of the Commonwealth, Europe, America etc. Included in the exhibition were books from the Margaret Scoggin Memorial collection. The exhibition

was formally opened by the President of the Sierra Leone Writers' Club who stressed the need for publishing houses in Sierra Leone.

The exhibition was widely publicised by the press, radio and television and it attracted large numbers of children and adults. However, compared with some of the other African countries, Sierra Leone has a long way to go in the provision of well-organised library services for children. The Sierra Leone Library Board has no professional children's librarian. This is a problem, for high quality staff are essential in creating an efficient service. Ghana and some states in Nigeria have excellent children's libraries because they have the professional staff - trained children's librarians who are aware that library service for children is a cornerstone of the public library system, that the experience children have with librarians can influence their attitudes towards libraries, education and educational materials in general, as well as their personal development, particularly their self-esteem. These fortunate countries realise that a person entering this field must respect children as complete persons, must enjoy the literature and materials children enjoy and must be a person with imagination and creativity. Children will not be attracted to a library with staff whose idea of children's library work is only the lending service.

The number of professional librarians on the staff of the Sierra Leone Library Board at the time of writing is ten, including the Acting Chief, Deputy and Principal Librarians. Of these ten, two are in the United Kingdom pursuing the Master in Library Studies (MLS) course at Loughborough University. There is no professional librarian in any of the three regional libraries or seven branch libraries in the provinces where the bulk of the population lives. All of these libraries are manned by untrained junior library assistants. The junior support staff at the Central Library and Headquarters is also untrained and there is no organised in-service training course. There is a high turnover among

staff at this level as well as professional staff because of low salaries, poor conditions of service and lack of motivation. The Board finds it very difficult to attract and retain persons of the right calibre with good academic background and an interest in the library profession. This is probably due to the fact that librarianship is a relatively new profession in developing countries in Africa and also to the fact that some governments give low priority to libraries and librarianship. The average citizen in these countries does not rate librarianship as a profession highly, and public libraries are not recognised by the governments and by the masses as one of the essential services.

III ILLITERACY

Many governments do not seem to appreciate the part libraries in developing African countries can play in the eradication of illiteracy where there are vigorous national mass literacy campaigns going on. It is estimated that the illiteracy rate in these countries increased by 56 million between 1960 and 1970 - and of those, 45 million were female. Governments must turn their attention to the eradication of illiteracy, which is responsible for some of the problems in library work in Africa.

In spite of the remarkable efforts made by many developing countries in Africa and the Third World, it is estimated that by 1980 there will still be 240 million children between the ages of five and 14 not attending school and there will be 820 million illiterates, 20 million more than at present. The World Bank World Atlas of the Child, drawn up for the International Year of the Child, contains some alarming statistics. By the year 2000 it is estimated that the number of children in Africa will increase by 72 per cent and this will naturally increase the percentage of illiteracy and aggravate another problem for libraries in Africa - readership: with a high illiteracy rate, where do we find readers? The majority of the children and their parents are without much education or are completely

illiterate - especially those in the rural areas. Libraries are not important to these people: to those who cannot read, libraries hold little attraction. There is also the problem of wastage. A large number of children leave primary school without sufficient skills and knowledge, and because of the poor educational facilities - lack of schools, overcrowded classes, inadequate teacher training, etc. - millions of children never gain sufficient reading skill to prevent them from lapsing into illiteracy.

IV BOOKS

The next problem is books. As Lester Asheim states, "... the problem of a reading audience is not strictly a matter of illiteracy. Obviously there can be no readers even when the ability exists, if there is nothing to read."

Public libraries have been enjoined to play - and indeed should play - a vital role in the eradication of illiteracy by stocking their shelves with books for new literates and children in rural and urban areas - books relevant to the readers' needs and experiences. But how can the libraries provide these books when they are not available or when few or no books are published in the local language or in simple English which children and new literates can read and understand? In Sierra Leone, for example, none of the vernacular languages are taught in the schools and colleges, and the majority who speak these vernacular languages cannot read the few pamphlets and other materials written in these languages. Ghana and Nigeria fare because in Nigeria the three major languages - Yoruba, Ibo and Hausa - are widely used, and in East Africa Swahili is widely used as a second language. In Ghana I believe Fante and Twi are also widely used.

Apart from those urban children who live in the capital cities, some of whom have been exposed to western ideas and influences, ordinary African children, especially in rural areas, have great difficulty in understanding books published overseas. The style and subject matter of the texts are almost incomprehensible to them and the stories have no

meaning because their background and language are unfamiliar.

This brings us now to the other problem relating to books - the provision of books in the mother tongue or the local languages. Public libraries are urged to stock books in the local languages, but there is a dearth of these books in our developing countries. Local children's authors and illustrators are few and in any case English is the lingua franca in most of these countries. There is a case for the widespread use of vernacular languages for literature, but a lot of research must still be done, which leads us to the next problem - Publishing and the Book Industry in developing African countries.

Much has been written on the problem of book development in African countries. African countries are dependent on European languages - primarily English and French - for education, commerce, administration and intellectual communication. There are many factors inhibiting local book production - strong oral traditions, scarcity of skilled book industry personnel, shortage of well-equipped modern printing establishments and the multiplicity of local languages. Nigeria is estimated to have between 350 and 400 languages shared by more than 100 ethnic linguistic groups, Ghana 56 languages and dialects and Sierra Leone, with a population of 3.200.00, is saddled with 18 languages and dialects. African countries are faced with the difficulty of printing and publishing in a multiplicity of local languages.

In the light of these problems, African countries have - and, I am afraid, will continue - to depend for a long time on multinational publishers whose output, because of commercial pressures, naturally reflects the needs and the social and cultural background of Europe and America. They have not invested heavily in literacy follow-up material or books for the young in Africa, even though these are vital in widening the reading habit, increasing the size of the book market and fostering widespread development. The multinational

publishers have neglected literacy and young people's materials because small readerships and linguistic fragmentation mean short print-runs and profits suffer because the purchasing power of the potential reader is low or absent.

Another problem caused by the lack of indigenous publishers and good bookshops is that librarians have to depend upon overseas publishers' catalogues and other bibliographical aids in the selection of books. These catalogues naturally list some books that are not really appropriate for libraries in developing countries, even those where English is spoken. The kind of books that would make a real impact in African countries where the child is in the process of learning a new language like English would be books written in simple English against a familiar background and with local illustrations. These books should be written by competent African authors to ensure a wider reading public.

V POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

The problems I have outlined can be solved at two levels (1) the national level and (2) the international level - by foreign aid.

1. National solutions

I believe public librarians, backed by strong library associations should engage in activities that will create a socio-political awareness of the importance of improving libraries and providing suitable books for the young as a matter of urgency. With the limited resources available it should be possible to attract young children as well as the adult population. Exhibitions and National Library Week Programmes are methods by which large numbers of children can be made aware of the library services.

The press, radio, and television should all be mobilised and great use must be made of oral publicity. Librarians should go out and give talks about the library and the books

in it to schools and other child audiences. These exhibitions, book weeks and so on should be organised on a nation-wide scale and not be confined to the capital cities.

Because the majority of the children live far away from the libraries, we could copy the example of Sunderland Public Libraries (U.K). Last year they organised a special project for children under the Urban Aid scheme, "Read about 78". It was designed to introduce children to books, maintain reading habits during the holiday break and give them access to books in areas without libraries. The mobile unit was staffed by four story-tellers and activities included story-sessions, craft-work, drama, games, music and general book-based activities. Approximately 1660 children were reached as the "Readabout" van covered 1221 miles; 55 sessions were held in 25 different places. 155 stories were told and almost 900 books were borrowed.

The use of mobile libraries will go a long way to solving the problem of distances so prevalent in African countries. Children find it difficult to visit the libraries as often as they would wish to. We must therefore take the library to them. Lack of funds, buildings and equipment also make it difficult to establish a network of children's libraries - as Ghana has done in various sections of the capital cities and at the district and village level. We must therefore take the books to the children wherever it is possible to have deposit collections of books - children's hospitals and institutions for handicapped children, e.g. schools for the Blind. In Sierra Leone the Milton Margai School for the Blind finds simple stories and folk-tales useful. These stories are translated into braille by the teachers in the school as it is very difficult to get suitable children's books in braille.

As far as the staff situation is concerned, national governments should provide adequate salaries and a staff structure which will attract and retain recruits of a good educational standard with the personal qualities required for the varied activities of a library service.

The proper use of the facilities provided by the library together with their full exploitation can only be achieved through constant supervision by trained staff. Public libraries find it difficult to employ and retain professional librarians because, faced with the rising cost of living, the poor salary structure and the realisation that a college degree would guarantee a higher salary, many young people do not seek employment in public libraries.

Turning to the problem of indigenous book industries, what is needed is a sufficiently large base of effective literacy, an educational system which is available to the masses and which makes use of the printed word, adequate printing equipment and the existence of professionals skilled in publishing and persons with ancillary skills such as editorial and writing abilities - we need writers of children's books, books which will accord with the African child's experience imagined or real - these will go a long way to solving the problem.

A nation-wide plan for library services is another solution to our problems. African countries need forward planning. Long-term nationwide plans for public library services should set goals for achievement within specified periods of, say, five years. The staffing needs or manpower development should be estimated as well as building needs, extension services etc. These plans should give a clear direction for development and should be included in the national development plan.

2. International solution - Foreign aid

Governments in African countries can request foreign aid in planning their nationwide library services. International assistance is really needed in this area because planning a national library service demands systematic studies of the country's social and economic situation, development trends and other vital questions which can be carried out only by people with the proper professional and academic qualifications. In many African countries the methods appropriate

to such planning have not been developed; statistical data is often not available and there are few librarians with the necessary experience in planning. Governments of such countries can request, through UNESCO's participation programme, consultants or experts in the planning of public library services who, working in close co-operation with the local librarians on the planning and development of a nation-wide public library service, can give good advice and timely help. Such specialist assistance can be obtained through bi-lateral agreements with countries which have developed library services.

Foreign aid is also useful in the area of staff training. I have already mentioned that libraries and librarianship are very low on the list of priorities of many African governments. It is true that there is a lot of talk about the importance of libraries and of the importance of encouraging reading in young children. Strong official statements are made but these are seldom followed by action. Scholarships are rarely given for library training and we depend upon scholarships given by the British Council fellowships, by Unesco and so on. Many countries in Africa will continue to depend on overseas training for professional staff, although there is a lot to be said for local training and the establishment of library schools in the developing countries. To quote Lester Asheim again, "The essentials of good library education are seldom present where librarianship and publishing are still in their early stages. The fact that there are no library schools in the country means that there are few people with the kind of qualifications needed by a teacher at the appropriate level for professional education. Good libraries are seldom available as models or as laboratories. Practice work, which is an essential where the student has had no previous opportunity to use libraries, will not offer the kind of experience which will lead to improvement in library services, or to the stimulating of standards to strive towards. There is much to be said for library education at home rather than in another country, but not if it must be so far below standard as to offer no contribution to the advancement of the profession or of the library service."

Foreign assistance can also be given for training of professional and middle-level manpower in countries like Ghana, Nigeria, Tanzania, Jamaica and India. Tanzania and Jamaica have a good core of librarians and they also lead most of the Third World countries both in the quantity and quality of their public libraries. They have a continuous and dynamic library leadership and vigorous government-sponsored mass literacy programmes.

Other forms of training using foreign aid are short courses and -study visits, summer schools and so on - for senior librarians. These enable them to improve their techniques and gain first-hand knowledge of what is being done in other countries in the library field. Participation in international professional meetings and conferences such as those organised by IFLA, Unesco, COMLA etc. are also useful. Another area in which foreign aid can be useful is the publishing industry - training of personnel and the provision of printing equipment. I have stated that one of the largest problems facing library services in our African countries is the dearth of suitable reading material. Much of what is available for the children is culturally irrelevant. While our governments can depend upon foreign assistance in this area, they must realise that they will themselves have to encourage and promote the production and publication of suitable reading materials and establish effective book development councils. Book donations from foreign countries can be valuable but the problem here is that many of the books are not really relevant to the situation in the recepient countries. I believe the best solution would be the Book Presentation Scheme of the Overseas Development Ministry of Great Britain (ODM) through the British Council, whereby the recepient countries select the books which are then bought by the donor countries and presented to the libraries in the recepient countries. Issuing of Unesco coupons is also another useful form of aid in the area of books (the Netherlands uses this method). These two arrangements are excellent solutions as they also avoid the problem of foreign exchange. The British Council and some Scandinavian countries have

also given a great deal of aid towards the development of libraries and librarianship in African countries in the areas of public library buildings, staff training, library equipment, the setting up of regional training centres and the financing of provision of lecturers for local workshops and seminars in librarianship. The British Council in particular put a lot of emphasis on children's books and they make regular presentations of children's books to libraries in African countries.

Donor countries and international agencies which provide external financing should ensure that the necessary personnel facilities as well as continuing support will be available in the recipient countries. Some requests for outside assistance reflect internal rivalries and jealousies, - loyalty to the clan or tribe rather than to the nation as a whole. This leads to a narrowness of vision and the absence of any kind of co-operative effort on a broader scale.

VI CONCLUSION

I hope that, in my description of the present state of library services in developing countries in Africa, I have been able to give you some idea of the conditions prevailing in most of these countries. In general the situation is most unsatisfactory because of underdeveloped library and information infrastructures, inadequate library legislation and the absence of an official body to organise and co-ordinate the countries' library resources and services. Until these countries set up a central co-ordinating body - a NATIS agency to organise information services to function in support of the educational, economic, cultural and industrial policies - libraries and information services in these countries will remain in their underdeveloped state. This co-ordinating body should be composed of representatives of all appropriate government departments, state bodies and semi-official institutions and of representative specialists from the library and information fields. Although the picture I have painted is a rather negative and gloomy one, I do not intend to

discourage those of you who wish to help us. I only want you to have a realistic recognition of our problems and of the situation in Sierra Leone in particular. A lot will depend upon ourselves, the librarians: we need for the future librarians with enthusiam and dedication, who will not allow lack of resources, shortage of staff and so on to be the excuse for their not doing their best to attract new readers and provide an efficient library service. Librarians will have to adopt radical approaches to the problems in library work. They will have to be innovative and make more use of non-book materials because of the low literacy rate in their countries in traditional societies which are not book-orientated. Librarians must initiate surveys into the reading habits of children, collaborate with other organisations and libraries in setting up workshops for writers and illustrators, book fairs, symposia on children's books and so on. A spirit of co-operation is essential for the consolidation of the profession. It is true that some governments have not accorded librarians the status they deserve, but it is also true that in some countries professional jealousies and rivalries amongst librarians themselves and the absence of a strong Library Association have slowed development of the profession. These countries will need a dedicated core of librarians who wish to work in the national interest. The real success of any library development in African countries depends mainly on the efforts of the librarians of those countries.

In conclusion I should like to state that, even with foreign aid and whatever form the development process may take, there is one essential condition: the national leadership - the political and administrative authorities - must be won over to the cause of public libraries and must understand the usefulness and the need for them. Otherwise libraries will remain minor institutions doomed to vegetate in relative isolation because of lack of facilities and funds.

In the final analysis therefore the solutions to our problems will depend upon the degree of consiousness of the society and the state. Lester Asheim rightly observed that "It is

the Ministers of Education, the Chancellors of Universities, and the directors of the budget who will determine in what direction libraries will go and how much support they will receive. Until they understand the function of the library as an educational institution, until they recognise that organised information is a national resource, until they accept librarianship as a profession essential to the nation's welfare most of our effort will be wasted."

I began my paper with a quotation from the Unesco Public Library Manifesto. I shall end with a quotation from the Director-General of Unesco, Amadou-Mahtar M'Bow, on the problem of the eradication of illiteracy - "The wisest statements of principle and the most persevering efforts by international organisations are as nothing if the political will of the nation concerned is lacking. Governments have a key role to play in establishing objectives, choosing strategies and mobilising the national energies and resources to make literacy a vital instrument for achieving the necessary social change."

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Chapter VIII

INTEGRATED LIBRARY EDUCATION: A NORDIC VIEW

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> In many parts of the world, even though information is available in the collections of documentation, library and archive services, the potential users of these facilities are unaware of their existence and the advantages they offer, or the information remains unused because it does not meet the special needs of specific sectors of the community.
>
> (NATIS)

I INTRODUCTION

The term "integrated library education" is a very broad one, and it raises a number of questions: what is to be integrated, how and for whom? In this paper I shall examine some of the main arguments for integration in the field of education in library and information science. "Library education" is here used as a very broad term, covering all aspects of education in the fields of library and information science. As I shall explain later, this is one of the main points of such an approach - namely, to underline the unity of our profession. The librarian is an information handling agent working alongside other agents of this kind such as teachers, journalists and newer brands of media and communication people. And here again the term "librarian" includes species like documentalists, information scientists and other groups which have developed recently and claim their own identity to be distinct from the old-fashioned librarian. We are all playing our parts in a scene set within the framework of the "global village" - the all-time classic of the organisation of communication and information handling - or Integration versus the Bits and Pieces".

We are all occupied with the collection, organisation and dissemination of knowledge, each profession having its own professional style, trade mark and status - but all forming necessary components of a network. The sum total is an activity that draws upon the whole universe of knowledge for the benefit of society and its many-faceted forms of human life - ranging from basic knowledge of human culture to advanced science and research work to leisure activities. In times when new technology, among other things, creates drastic changes in old, established professions, the philosophy of integration and, to some extent, adapting to new situations seems worthwhile considering. To use an example: those who manufactured horse-whips for stage-coach drivers are probably out of the market by now, whereas those who manufacture accessories for moving vehicles are almost certainly still doing good business.

> An overall effective policy should include provision for training of manpower to perform at all levels and in all relevant environments. The manpower structure must be balanced and integrated. Manpower planning is essential both to ensure an adequate supply of qualified staff to meet increasing national demands and to avoid overproduction.
>
> (NATIS)

II RELATION TO OTHER SECTORS OF SOCIETY

It is always useful to keep in mind that the structure of education will be ruled by national laws and regulations. This will of course also apply to library education as to the whole field of library and information science and the allied professions mentioned earlier. This has been expressed in the UNISIST "Guidelines for Curriculum Development in Information Studies" as follows: "the strength of a country's library and information infrastructure has in fact a direct influence on the adequacy of the professional education and training which that country can provide; the stronger and more sophisticated the infrastructure, the more effective will be the educational programmes, and the more ambitious the objectives to which those programmes can aspire."

Clearly this points to a number of limiting factors in the process of designing and running a professional education system. But it also stresses, on the other hand, the responsibilities of the professionals and the institutions within the profession in this process. It could be said that every profession gets the education it deserves. This is perhaps my first aspect of integrated library education: the relation to the real world of libraries and professionals within the wider framework of society as a whole - today's society; we must not become petrified in history. We must remember that we today should be educating tomorrow's librarians - not those of yesterday. Developing professional education as an integrated part of the development of the profession is an obvious need but an extremely difficult task. As James H. Boren has pointed out, every profession has built-in "dynamic inaction and constructive nonresponsiveness to preserve the dynamic status quo." The problem in librarianship, as in most professions, is that the status quo is often defended for far too long - which of course is reflected in the discussions concerning the development of the most suitable professional education.

> It is of the highest importance therefore that documentation centres, libraries and archives should not be thought of as isolated units, nor even as a national network of such units separate from other professions and sectors of society, which are in fact closely interrelated.
>
> (NATIS)

III LIBRARY CO-OPERATION

A second reason for stressing a term like "integrated library education" is to be found in the development in recent years in the fields of interlibrary lending and library co-operation.

This should also be viewed in the context of the international programs that IFLA/Unesco have launched in UBC and UAP. Also Unesco's General Information Program stresses the idea of co-operation - and thereby implicitly the idea of the "self-

renewing" library. No single library can provide a complete and universal service, but it may be possible to approach this ideal through a joint, concerted effort. This idea has given rise to the term "multitype library co-operation", which has been defined by Orin Nolting as a "means of mobilising total library resources to meet the need of the user without regard to the type of library involved and without classifying the user as a public, school, academic or special library patron. The goal is to help all library users make more effective use of all library resources and services related to educational, work, and recreational needs. The primary responsibility of each type of library is respected, but no one library can economically satisfy all demands made upon it." This certainly sounds like another argument for an integrated approach in library education. The breaking down of traditional barriers between different types of libraries calls for a master plan for sharing resources and the adoption of policies that establish freer access for all users.

> Qualified personnel in the information field should be accorded similar status and conditions of service as those accorded to professionals of equivalent level in other fields. Only in this way will personnel of the necessary calibre be attracted to and retained in the professions and brain drain avoided. To carry out the tasks of the documentation, library and archives infrastructure it will be necessary to recruit staff of high quality, able to accept the responsibility for making the fullest contribution to national development.
>
> (NATIS)

IV "THE UNITY OF THE PROFESSION"

In the old days we had libraries and librarians. These were of different standards even then, but were generally better than today. New technology has been brought into our field and the electronic and audio-visual wizardry has provided a basis for a number of separatistic movements within the ranks of the old profession of librarianship. I can understand this search for identity and a wish to be recognised, but at the same time I see this as a danger to a profession which - today more than ever - will need an integrated approach to be able to meet the demands made of it. Ways of

doing this include the ideas of the "multitype library" and striving for increased international co-operation. D.J. Foskett once said, "Nothing distinguishes an information scientist from a librarian unless it be that a librarian lacks the ability to comprehend and transfer or circulate information, and I do not believe that this is the case."

Let me add that I share Mr. Foskett's belief on this point. I admit that it may also be a question of words - to some people "information scientist" sounds better than librarian. The main question, however, is whether we are willing and able to pull together as one profession. And in this integrated library education has an important role - not just in underlining the common elements in the housekeeping routines of all types of libraries and stressing the interrelatedness of information work in a variety of institutions. It also concerns the status of the profession. I fear that the separatistic trends mentioned earlier may build barriers between various areas of the profession, and we may end up with a situation in which, in Dwight Morrow's words, "The world seems to be divided into those who produce the results and those who get the credit". And that is not a good situation for making people try harder to reach the objectives demanded by library co-operation. Teaching in an integrated library education approach would, among other things, include a programme of library, society and various management approaches, like consensus management, which may provide a better understanding of co-operation between various types of personel and between institutions.

A special study should be made of the new advances in technology. Too often these have been linked with academic and special libraries or more fancy information centres of various kind. This has led to the attitude that this is nothing for school, public or other types of libraries - which, of course, is wrong. An integrated approach to library education may take this into consideration and give the students a balanced view of the situation. Far too often, new technological advances have been seen as a threat to

what are considered more traditional cultural values. As someone said, "No matter what you call it, to me it's still librarianship."

> The programme for professional education and training of information manpower will be revised and extended in the light of the needs of Member States in developing and implementing NATIS. Basic elements of this programme will be: (i) the harmonization of curricula for documentalists, librarians and archivists; (ii) the education of teachers in the relevant fields of study; (iii) the education of qualified personnel; (iv) the training of technicians.
>
> (NATIS)

V RESOURCES

Another obvious field for integration is particularly evident in the Nordic countries and I would think this to be true in many of the developing countries as well. It has to do with the fact that we are dealing with small nations and often with limited resources.

The normal pattern is only one library school - or maybe two, or none - to educate enough professional librarians for the whole country. In such a setting it makes a lot of sense to try combining forces.

Not only may this mean a common core curriculum with possibilities for specialisation in the various fields of librarianship, but it may even include a wider approach toward other related professions such as journalism, book-selling and publishing - and of course the field of archives. Recent developments in our field have led to an increased awareness of the user and the user's need for information. User and use studies are playing a very significant role in most areas of curriculum development. Not only is this important and promising in itself, but it also points to another argument for joining forces in integrated education. The role of research is of vital importance for professional development within our field and of course for the development of library education in particular. Also, a number of the results derived from research projects can be valuable in other parts of the profession.

> The present situation is characterized in a great number of countries, especially in the industrialised ones, by a gap between documentation centres and libraries on the one hand and archives on the other. Closer co-operation between documentalists, librarians and archivists should be encouraged both at the international level where FID, IFLA and ICA have already established mutual units, and at the national level where their planning should be co-ordinated wherever possible.
>
> (NATIS)

VI CURRICULUM

I have so far been dealing with the term "integrated library education" without going into details about curriculum design; instead of doing this, I should like to draw your attention to the UNISIST Guidelines for Curriculum Development in Information Studies (PGI/78/WS/27, Unesco 1978) which I have cited earlier.

In it the author, Professor W. Saunders, states that:

> An approach to curriculum development which depends too heavily on listings of course offerings from existing institutions - however excellent - has severe limitations. It is both dangerous and misleading to copy or to be overly influenced by the programme of another institution without a very full awareness of its distinctive objectives and characteristics, its constraints, its special opportunities. For the same reasons it would be relatively valueless - indeed, presumptuous - to attempt to prescribe in these guidelines a definitive curriculum: the "cook book" approach, as already stated, is quite inappropriate for our purpose. What is needed is an approach to curriculum development which can be adjusted to the particular needs of a particular situation, which will be adaptable and flexible, to meet changing needs."

He goes on to say that a careful examination of various programmes will give some indication of the variety of topics which can legitimately be covered by an information studies curriculum and suggests a large number of possible approaches.

To find a way through these many alternatives is no easy matter and it must be emphasised once again that there is

no definitive,"all-purpose" answer. It is possible, however, to approach our subject in such a way that the principal areas of study which collectively make up information studies will emerge, and provide a structure upon which a curriculum may be built. These areas comprise the following:

(a) human communication: a foundation course,
(b) user studies,
(c) sources of information,
(d) information/data storage and retrieval,
(e) organisational aspects,
(f) dissertation,
(g) options.

These are Professor Saunders's suggestions, and I could have added some paragraphs from the IFLA Standards of Library Schools. The terminolgy may differ, but the basics are the same: we are seeking a common platform for the various housekeeping routines necessary in running a library - any library. And we believe - those of us who support integrated library education - that there is more to unite the profession than to separate it. So, on the basis of the opinions and considerations presented so far, the conclusion of this paper is a vote in favour of integration - but an integration and an understanding of professional relations that will have to be worked on over and over again in the various areas of curriculum development for library education.

It is said that it is very difficult to assess how people will react to new technology before they have experienced it. The prospective user is often very unclear as to how easy a new product will be to use. Therefore, his opinion is of limited value in helping the surveyor predict the impact of the new product.

My belief is that this holds true not only for new technology, but for coping with new situations in general within the framework of a professional setting. An integrated approach giving an idea of the total picture within the framework might just be the platform needed to help gain an understanding of information handling for the benefit of society as a whole.

INTEGRATED LIBRARY EDUCATION: AN AFRICAN VIEW

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I GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Countries, whether formed of national or international communities, are conscious of the part played by information in the process of the general development of their peoples. They are also becoming more and more convinced of the necessity of having a sufficient number of highly qualified specialists who will ensure the collection, treatment and spread of this information. This is why it seems to me right to lay great emphasis on the formation of library and documentary staffs. Equally, attention should be focussed on methods of formation which will meet the real needs of diverse social strata. One should not lose sight of the fact that the information sciences in each country are not independent of each other in a world which, as has elsewhere been stated, has become "a global village where neighbours of different cultures ought to learn to co-exist side by side".

This situation gives impetus to the search for a new form of pedagogy which will lead librarians and documentalists to realise that they serve the same "social function" - to supply information to those who need it.

II A PEDAGOGICAL METHOD: Integration

Among the more prevalent pedagogical ideas is the idea of integration, which, even if it formerly made many smile, is enjoying a new popularity at present.

The reasons which support the idea of integration, of a common educational procedure for both librarians and documentalists are many. Some of them are connected with the current situation in developing countries, others with the evolution of science and technology there.

1. Developing countries and information structures

It is common knowledge that, despite efforts at the individual, national and international level, an extremely unfavourable situation exists; there is an inadequate infrastructure in terms of both quality and quantity, as well as staff shortcomings, in face or the real needs. Another decisive factor, and one which may be regarded as both cause and consequence, is the total ignorance - or at best insufficient knowledge - of what the profession is and what it could offer towards the general progress of the country in question.

Under these circumstances it is understandable that Unesco has aimed, on the one hand, at the rapid training of librarians and, on the other, at the establishment of a common base for instruction and training so as to avoid strife between institutions and to break down or weaken the psychological barriers between different domains.

It is clear that any successful pedagogical programme in Africa must avoid needles reiteration and co-ordinate activities in a way that will be of optimum pedagogical use.

2. Developing countries and the evolution of science and technology in the domain of information

I do not believe it is necessary to emphasise the importance of the current stage of development of the book industry and of the continued growth of science-oriented publishing or to stress the necessity for a rationalisation of methods, particularly of methods of selection. Among other new factors, I should like to draw your attention to the change in the structure of library management when it is faced with

diversified and increasing needs. Such circumstances require that we co-operate and pool our available technical resources. It is more and more evident that we must set up networks and rationalise our organisation and methods of work.

In the new conception I set out above there are a number of fresh demands made upon us. We must keep abreast of new information aids and audio-visual methods which will open new horizons in our profession both at training level and in use. The trend towards automation which might result, in the words of Mr. Geh in a report some years ago in the IFLA Schools section, in a "regional network of co-operation by means of a data bank" which demands, he continues, an improved cataloguing of materials and an improved communication of resources. Finally, we need to know library users, their expressed and unexpressed needs and their behaviour patterns and to give them a lead.

It is clear that librarians and documentalists will be faced with a variety of new tasks which make it necessary to introduce them to modern management methods.

3. First conclusion

I have gone to some length describing the situation in developing countries, with particular reference to Africa which I am most familiar with, and tried to summarise the newest trends in library economics and documentation. What I have said seems to me important in planning librarianship training.

As is well known, the cost of training depends on the numbers of both teachers and students. It also depends on the availability and quality of teaching materials, especially audio-visual materials - so we may state as follows:

a) It seems neither useful nor advisable to establish small schools for every specialist area: university libraries, public libraries, special libraries, documentation centres, etc.

b) In the evolution of tasks which are similar and related we discover that, in addition to the expected inter-disciplinary advantages, there is a lot to be gained from removing the psychological barriers and cultivating complementary aims which make for a solidarity that prevents pointless rivalry, waste of time and resources and increases efficiency while at the same time widening the choice of options for those in training.

c) Concerning Africa, it should be added that, because of the staff shortage at all levels and the newness of the profession, it is necessary there, more than anywhere else, that the entire professional body should together aim at the following:

i) convincing the relevant authorities of the importance of its work
ii) promoting a policy of complementary aims, co-operation and solidarity
iii) setting up a united and strong professional body.

So the current situation, complicated by adverse economic conditions everywhere, is linked with an increasing complexity of training requirements due to the need to respond to changes in society.

III THE SCHOOL FOR LIBRARIANS, ARCHIVISTS AND DOCUMENTALISTS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF DAKAR (EBAD)

It seems to me that we can start with an example, which I give purely by way of an illustration, which may lead to a better understanding of the necessity as well as the possibility of an integrated approach to education. How have the training programmes of the School of Librarians, Archivists and Documentalists of the University of Dakar been drawn up in the light of these circumstances?

1. History in brief

EBAD originated in 1967 to replace the Regional Centre for Librarianship, jointly set up by Unesco and the state of Senegal, which offered a nine-month course. This course followed the recommendation of the Ibadan (1955) and Enugu (1961) conferences concerning stages of study for African

public librarians. It was also in line with the Addis Abeba (1961) Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa.

Training at Dakar, as early as the time when it had a Regional Centre for Librarianship (1963-66), was orientated towards a global situation and tried to train the future technicians in various tasks belonging to the various kinds of library, such as the fields of archives and documentation. Originally this happened in a pragmatic fashion, as a result of the following conclusions:

a) Those students who enlisted in the first year came from archives, libraries and documentation centres and were, after their training, without any clear motivation towards any of these sectors. The reason for this was the poor development of structures and the lack of precision of their contents. Another cause was the negligible number of practising professionals.

b) Concomitant with the above, we did not wish to develop any one feature to excess and it was altogether natural that, in the struggle for the development of libraries and documentation centres as well as for the advancement and protection of the profession, we favoured that which united rather than that which divided.

In this way, future librarians were trained simultaneously in archive and documentation techniques.

When the government set up the new institute, it laid down as its objective the training of librarians, archivists and documentalists. But, until the foundation of the archive section in 1971, EBAD trained only librarians through a comprehensive programme, based on a two-year course for students with similar qualifications, which included the study of archives and documentation.

When the archives section and the documentation section were set up, in 1971 and 1975 respectively, it was necessary to arrange the programmes in a way that integrated some of the

general subjects with some features of the technical subjects. Specialised courses were then added, backed up by practical sessions.

The tables show the levels and limits of integration between the programmes of the sections for the training of librarians and documentalists at EBAD and the specific orientation of each course.

FIRST YEAR Theme	:Min. no. of hours per year:	Section
I General instruction		
- history of ideas, science and skills	16	L. D.*)
- science and methodology	12	D.
- history of African arts	20	L.
- history of literature	48	L.
- history of civilisation	24	L. D.
- introduction to law	10	L. D.
- English (laboratory	30	D.
(technical English	30	L. D.
- typing	24	L. D.
- introduction to economics	6	D.
II Technical instruction		
- general bibliography	24	L. D.
- library economics	30	L. D.
- the sociology and social psychology of information	6	D.
- organisation and administration	50	L.
- cataloguing	36	L. D.
- documentary analysis	6	D.
- classification	48	D.
- information sources	24	
- introduction to documentation	8	D.
- archives	12	D.

*) L. = Library section
D. = Documentation section

SECOND YEAR Theme	Min. no. of hours per year:	Section
- specialised and African bibliography	60	L. D.
- documentation	24	L.
- cataloguing	48	L. D.
- alphabetic cataloguing of material	48	L.
	24	D.
- particular problems of cataloguing and classification	48	L.
- specialised classification	12	D.
- indexing	18	
- administrative and financial organisation	45	L.
	10	D.
- making a summary	24	D.
- spread of information	30	D.
- documentary selection	16	D.
- normalisation	8	D.
- documentary networks	8	D.
- documentary informatics	4	D.
- English (laboratory	30	D.
(technical	30	D.
- application to the four categories of library:		
- national libraries	18	L.
- university and special libraries	18	L.
- public libraries	18	L.
- school libraries	18	L.

These tables show that:

a) certain options are compulsory for all students. These include general knowledge essential for all specialists in information.

b) other courses are compulsory to begin with but become more detailed, depending on the purpose of the training: cataloguing and classification, administrative and financial organisation, etc.

c) specialisations of limited interest are taught only in one section: documentary selection, documentary networks, making summaries, spread of information, documentary reproduction, standardisation, technical documentation for publishing purposes, specialised library economics, instruction relevant to the various kinds of library (for librarians).

It has been observed that the experience gained has led to greater integration since early courses for documentalists are taken by students of other sections: this is the case, for example, with reprographics and with informatics

applied to information, as well as with the sociology and psychology of information.

I am not suggesting that the EBAD's solution holds good in all cases. My intention is simply to demonstrate the many problems involved and the choice that was made to resolve them in one particular case.

IV GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS ABOUT INTEGRATION

It appears today that the arguments concerning the need and possibility of integration no longer meet with the opposition of times past. Nevertheless, it remains for us to plan the content of programmes and the degree of integration required. Interpretation will vary according to the level of courses under consideration, depending on whether they are average or post-graduate.

1. Unesco and the problem of integration

It appears to me that the conclusions reached in the Unesco conference about integration, even if not totally satisfactory, represent an important stage in thinking on the training of librarians, archivists and documentalists. These conclusions in fact concern the headings still in use - fondement or masonry, matériaux or materials, méthodes or methods, gestion or management, technology or mechanisation - topics which should be taught in all the branches of the profession. So we have all matters relevant to history, to development and the evolution of thought under the first heading 'masonry', all matters connected with the organisation of materials listed in the section 'materials', all concerning the problem of management (identification of aims and methods, financial and administrative organisation, training, organisation and management of personnel, planning) and problems connected with reprographic work and with informatics applied to information in the last two groups.

2. Integration and libraries

The general considerations contained in the foregoing apply to libraries in general and to documentation. It would be very desirable for all professional persons concerned with information to be trained in the organisation of science and learning, in law and the economic sciences, in the science of information handling, in the psychology of the user, in the utilisation of audio-visual material and in the new technical aids and how these should be selected, used and maintained.

a) In the matter of the training of librarians, specialisation will be required in particular areas:

i) Types of library

- public libraries

  - municipal, regional and rural libraries. We should consider, in countries such as ours, the needs of the agricultural worker, the woman and the child in rural surroundings etc.

- academic libraries

  on a national, university, regional or syndicate basis

- special libraries and documentation centres

ii) Particular domains:

There may also be specialisation in planning, data techniques, public relations, etc.

b) Integration and pedagogic renewal; Integration, which aims to train librarians in a new way, requires a fresh framework of pedagogical practice: first of all among the teachers by joint endeavour in pedagogical methods and in drawing up support material, by the organisation of linked lectures or - ideally - common courses if two teachers are holding courses in related domains, and secondly in the planning of lecture lists, by drawing up lists of complementary lectures and encouraging group research.

c) By a fresh attitude towards probation and visiting in such a way that every information specialist sees how institutions other than the one where he or she is likely to be employed function and develop.

V GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The idea of integration, being much more than the checking of the programme contents, is concerned with the need to improve the education of future information specialists, to mould a new sort of librarian and documentalist to match the growing interdependence of the sciences of information and the need for co-ordination of effort among all those whose job it is to supply information to those who need it.

Integration should lead to the lessening of isolation and the removal of psychological barriers. We believe that this process will be helped if training is conducted in one establishment for the greatest possible number of staff. In this way it will be possible to instil, right from the start of school, a sense of what co-operation and solidarity mean, with a view to the harmonisation of methods and the establishment of a respected, dependable and stable profession. This demands in turn that training is carried out at university level with due regard for internationally established standards.

This is EBAD's moving spirit - EBAD shares in the training of librarians, archivists and documentalists from eighteen or nineteen countries in Africa and the Indian Ocean. More than 317 diploma students have graduated from its courses.

This spirit has brought about the following results:

1) the existence there and the preparation elsewhere of a unique statute of information personnel

2) a widespread professional body of French-speaking African associations bringing together librarians, archivists and documentalists of all levels.

I am conscious of the limitations of my comments on so complex a subject. The problem is one which concerns all of us who are determined to put our profession on the footing it deserves and to place it at the service of society.

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Chapter IX

LIBRARIES IN THE AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS: THE PROBLEMS OF THE LIBRARY SERVICE IN AFRICA

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I SUMMARY

In addition to the enormous size of the countries, the main problems facing library work in Africa are the novelty of the public library idea, the difference in culture and the lack of funds, trained personnel, suitable reading materials, strong indigenous publishing and distributing companies, official vernacular languages, basic infrastructure, library supply and processing centres. Suggestions for the solutions I suggest are centred on co-operation, skilful planning and budgeting, the adaptation of the new service to the African environment and technical and financial aid from the developed nations.

II INTRODUCTION

Africa is so large and communication in it so slow and difficult that it was impossible, within the time at my disposal, to get in touch with many library services in distant countries before writing this paper. My comments will therefore have greatest relevance to public library services in Anglophone West Africa and be of general application to those in other parts of the continent and possibly also to a good many libraries of the Third World. The developing countries of the world seem to have many problems in common, especially when those problems bear upon the legacies of their colonial past. In the case of university and similar libraries in Africa, I have never worked in them and therefore cannot pretend to have an intimate knowledge of their problems. But I think that my observations will also have some relevance to them.

Perhaps I shall not be too far wrong if I say that all aspects of library work in Africa are full of problems, some of which cannot be solved by the librarian alone. A number of factors account for this: the enormous geographical size of the countries, the high level of illiteracy, the general poverty, the culture of the people, the history of their recent past and, above all, the fact that public library service is a new introduction from an entirely different culture. Tricia Grove-Smith sums up the situation in the conclusion of a brief discription of her experience in Botswana National Library Service as follows:

> "So here I am telling you about a new small branch library that is just the same as any other - or is it? In the Western World books and reading are an accepted, everyday and natural part of growing up, of life itself; here we are still introducing a new exciting idea, and it's a challenging adventure."[1]

New introductions, of course, have their teething problems in their new environment.

III FUNDS

Generally, public libraries all over the world suffer from lack of funds. Comparatively, however, those in Africa, appear to suffer most. They invariably have to depend on direct government subvention. But government funds are competed for by other social services like education, the importance of which appears to be better appreciated by the government functionaries responsible for the allocation. It is not surprising therefore, that public libraries are rated as low-priority development projects. The University libraries fare relatively better since they serve a more enlightened and educated community that has the book as its primary resource. Furthermore, the present world economic situation has adversely affected public libraries the world over, but those in developing countries, especially Africa, have borne more than their fair share of the shock. It is an irony of fate that in an economic crisis, the poor get comparatively much poorer. Librarians in Africa are painfully aware of the

limitations the present economic constraint places upon their development projects. The reply we frequently get from our controlling ministries as we go, cap in hand, asking for more is, "Times are bad; there is no money. Please go and manage with what you have."

To run a fairly efficient library service on a shoestring is quite difficult, and calls for long range careful budgeting in which the librarian tries to forecast his financial resources and plans his service and its development to fit them - while still allowing for slight variations. By applying such management techniques as job analysis, time study and so on, the librarian in Africa should endeavour to keep the methods and general conditions of his service under continual review, with a view to cutting down costs where necessary and thereby using the small amount of money at his disposal in the best way. Although a poor library service may not be able to afford the services of an outside expert in this field, a select team of its more experienced and intelligent workers from various library departments can undertake this kind of survey and arrive at useful conclusions. Cost-saving devices also imply the centralisation of some aspects of the services to reduce or even get rid of routines which are common to all the libraries - cataloguing routines, for example. Addressing the Public Libraries Section of the 1977 IFLA Conference on "Library rationalisation from the consumer's point of view" Sigurd Möhlenbrock stressed that "central cataloguing is a must to public libraries especially in a rough economic climate."[2] If libraries in Africa cannot afford to establish regional or national processing centres, they can at least take advantage of the work done elsewhere, especially as the bulk of their acquisition comes from outside Africa.

Faced with the painful frustration of insufficient funds, should not libraries in Africa, even in the developing countries, re-examine their traditional role in society? Do we really need to practise public librarianship purely as it is done in America and the West - despite our different environments, economic conditions and cultures?

I should like all of us to address ourselves to finding a realistic approach to this question. My own service in the newly created Imo State of Nigeria is considering at present the idea of incorporating some revenue-yielding ventures, like property development and bookshops into the system. This may seem an outrageous departure from the traditional role of public libraries. But it need not be, since there is no intention of the librarian handling the business directly. The Library Board needs only to provide the funds, pay the staff and take the profits.[3] This idea has been the subject of much controversy among librarians in my part of the Federation for over a year, but I have found no valid arguments against it except the usual conservatism of the librarian, who is always in need of money but appears to frown on any moves to make it.

Another source of improvement of library funds is through assistance from the developed countries overseas. This may take the form of direct or multi-lateral provision of funds and equipment for a particular library project. Indeed, the pioneers of the public library service in English-speaking Africa have been outside agents like the British Council and the United States Information Service, and lately Unesco.

It is perhaps the British government which has, more than any other outside government, aided the development of public library services in Africa. Bi-lateral aids in the way of funds and book donations are frequently channelled through the British Council. The United States government has also been generous. In Northern Nigeria, the library of the Institute of Administration was built in 1963-64 at a cost of £33,000 with funds generously provided by the United States Government under the A.I.D. Scheme.[4] The Scandinavian countries have also played a praiseworthy part in this matter, although their activities appear to have centred largely on the eastern countries of Africa, particularly Tanzania.

In recent times, assistance from other parts of the western world has been largely multi-lateral and channelled through such inter-national bodies as Unesco. More of these aids to African libraries will - in the present economic climate - be most welcome. It goes without saying that lack of funds means that libraries to meet the needs of the people cannot be built.

IV PERSONNEL

Next to poverty in the hierarchy of problems of African libraries is the complex situation of personnel. It ranges from lack of trained librarians, to the African worker's general attitude to work, especially library work. Owing to the lack of training facilities, libraries in Africa are very much in short supply of professionally trained staff. Today, librarians in Anglophone black Africa receive their training from three main sources: their local university, which may incorporate a library school usually offering diplomas to graduates and non-graduates or awarding bachelor's degrees, library schools in Britain, especially at the University of Technology, Loughborough and the library schools of the American universities - particularly Pittsburgh. But the out-put of all these schools is not sufficient to meet the increasing demands of the expanding public library services in countries like Ghana, Tanzania and Nigeria.

The plight of the non-professional staff is even worse. There are very few training facilities for them in their African countries. Most of them receive non-certificate in-service training which is seldom recognised for advancement in their careers. I must mention here that the library school of Ibadan University, Nigeria, has a two-year diploma course for workers who satisfy University entrance requirements. As the profession goes graduate in Britain and America, its counterpart in Africa is bound to follow suit if it is to keep abreast of the time. It sometimes does so a little over-enthusiastically.

This frequently leads to the vexed question as to whether or not non-graduate A.L.A.s* and diploma holders should be recognised as professional librarians, and may in some cases lead to bitterness and apathy on the part of non-graduates, especially the more experienced and capable ones who may feel slighted. Consequently, there is a keen desire on the part of this category of staff to study for the masters degree in library science. But very few institutions in Africa run the course. The two library schools in Nigeria have only just started it and it is more or less restricted to graduates.

Reviewing the general problems bedevilling library work in developing countries, Professor P. Havard-Williams summed up the personnel situation in Africa when he said that there is a serious lack of the trained personnel in the right proportions needed at various levels in order to provide a satisfactory infrastructure.[5] Limited personnel and lack of finance make it extremely difficult for the profession in Africa to find a solution to this problem. Library schools are expensive institutions and cannot be easily expanded. In Africa they are at the moment doing their level best. What else can be done to improve the situation is for librarians in Africa to embark upon some sort of resource-sharing - co-operation to establish international training schools to cater for all categories of library students while the national schools continue with their normal output. Assistance from the developed countries overseas is again necessary in this field. Meanwhile only a few English-speaking institutions overseas have M.A. and M.L.S. programmes for both the graduates and the A.L.A.s. They include Loughborough University of Technology, the International Graduate Summer School in Librarianship and Information Science in Aberystwyth, Wales (run jointly by the college of Librarianship Wales and the University of Pittsburgh Graduate School of Library and Information Science USA) and a few other state universities in the United States.

* Associate of the British Library Association

The rest cater for graduates only. Certainly more of this type of programme to help non-graduate staff to full qualification will be of immense help to African librarianship.

Language in undoubtedly a problem for African librarians studying in most European countries. But in many of these countries a good number of the librarians, especially the younger teaching staff, have a working knowledge of English. Perhaps it is no overestimation to say that in Denmark, for instance, every fourth librarian below the age of 40 speaks fairly good English - and some times much better English than some educated nationals of the former British colonies in Africa. It should not therefore be too difficult to organise a post-graduate diploma course for graduates from Africa who have had some library experience. In Denmark such courses lasting one academic year or more are arranged for graduates of veterinary science and other branches of the agricultural sciences. The non-certificate fellowships or study tours granted to African librarians are beneficial to the service if not so much to the librarians themselves, who come from countries where a certificate from a recognised institution makes all the difference between poverty and affluence.

Because of the colonial past of Africa, when the public services were, quite understandably, regarded as the "white man's job", the average African worker works with less dedication and interest than his European counterpart. This attitude is most prevalent among the junior workers. A good number of school-leavers come to library service not to make a career of it, but because they think it offers them the much-needed opportunity to read for university entrance and other higher examinations. This is frequently revealed at interviews. If recruited, these candidates constitute a management problem. They concentrate more on reading than doing the job and when they eventually pass their examinations, immediately leave the service. This leads to a high turnover in this category of workers. Many African public libraries have to put up with this situation if they are to recruit junior staff.

In parts of eastern Nigeria, proposals have been made to combat this problem by lowering the standard of the candidates' qualification a little, thus avoiding the recruitement of prospective university candidates who are usually birds of passage.

V SUITABLE READING MATERIALS

The librarian in Africa faces the problem of finding children's reading materials which are suitable as to language, background and content. At this stage of our development, nearly all libraries in Africa have to depend very much on overseas publications. The problem here is that most of the books available in the market are written for children with a different background to most African children and are therefore not suitable for use in our children's libraries. Another aspect of this problem is that in most African countries, English or French - though the lingua franca - is nevertheless second language and children do not usually acquire a good command of it until about the age of ten. At that age one finds that books which are suitable for their age-group in England or France may be too difficult for them.

Recently the various subsidiaries of the English publishing companies in various parts of Africa have put out a reasonable number of books written by Africans, and others based on an African background. But this is largely meant for use in formal education in educational institutions, rather than for general reading in public libraries. Heinemann, in its African Writers Series, has attempted to fill this gap. Some indigenous publishing houses (e.g. East African Publishing House, Ethiope in Nigeria, Tanzania Publishing House etc.) have also contributed. But, all told, the output is comparatively small. In 1973, Ghana's book production stood at 136 titles, Malawi's 32, Tanzania's 123, Kenya's 224 and Nigeria's 1,316, while in 1970, Britain alone produced 40,000 titles.[6]

A publication in English or French with a suitable African background cannot take the place of the same publication in an African vernacular language.

The language of a book has a strong influence on its role in society. Books in the vernacular tend to crystallise and aid the development of the traditional culture. They enable information to reach a wider public by making it available also to those who can read only in the vernacular. By encouraging the constant use of that language, such books make it more familiar and acceptable. This role is compatible with the aims of the public library service. But unfortunately, books in African vernacular languages are not wielding that influence at the present. An additional problem is that the well-educated bilingual African prefers to read in English or French. Encouraging this attitude is the fact that very few of the books on the highly professional, scholarly and technical subjects which the bulk of African readers are interested in are hardly published in the vernacular. Until more and more indigenous writers begin to write books suitable for Africans, libraries in Africa will continue to face the problem of lack of suitable metarials and their neo-literate readers will fall back into illiteracy for want of suitable reading materials to sustain their interest.

This brings us to the problems of indigenous publishing in Africa. Considering the lack of finance, limited home market, difficulty of distribution and lack of a well-developed popularly accepted vernacular language, the indigenous publisher has very limited chance of success in the face of stiff competition from the highly sophisticated multinational publishing companies of the western world. These giants enjoy the economic advantages of large scale activity, subsidies from their home governments which give them the edge in competition as well as the patronage of good and renowned writers including indigenous African authors.

A serious government decision, backed by generous government aid, is therefore necessary to develop an indigenous publishing service for the home market and to ensure that it remains indigenous to help nourish the library system.

First, one of the major vernacular languages in the country (there is always a host of them in any African country) - for example Kiswahili in East Africa or Hausa in Nigeria - must be made the official language, and this must be followed up with a serious mass literacy campaing. Secondly, the official vernacular language should be made the medium of instruction in primary, secondary and adult education. Finally, the local publishers and book-sellers receiving government aid should be commissioned to produce and distribute the books exclusively to these institutions. In this way a start will be made and experience and expertise acquired over the years. This is by no means a new idea. Similar approaches have been tried with considerable success in some Asian countries like Malaysia, Korea and India. Today, the volume of India's publications in Hindi compares favourably with that in English even though the latter may still be dominant in highly professional and scientific literature.

Allied to the problem of publication is that of distribution. The foreign publishers and their subsidaries in Africa are not interested in the use of bookshops for the distribution of their commodity. As has already been mentioned, they produce books not for the public, but for a particular market - the educational institutions, which they deal with through their representatives. This has resulted in a conspicuous lack of sizeable bookshops in parts of Africa. Libraries in Africa have therefore had to depend on overseas agents and book-sellers for the purchase of their materials. The long delays in receiving orders and negotiating for foreign exchange to pay the bills, can be most painful and frustrating. If our colleagues in Europe are irritated by delays, we in Africa should shed tears considering the magnitude of ours. We sometimes get very close to doing that.

To counter this, libraries in Africa should consider building up well-stocked and dependable bookshops to service them. This again calls for concerted action within a region. The shops need not be managed by the librarians themselves.

They could be commercial enterprises run separately by qualified bookshop managers with profits and other benefits accruing to the proprietary libraries. A public library service in the Bendel State of Nigeria has ventured into this field with considerable success. The Bendel Book Depot is a bookshop division of the Bendel State public library service supplying first and foremost the public and school libraries, and then the public at large.[7]

VI READERSHIP

Most reading in African libraries is utilitarian - studying to pass the examinations necessary for a good job and social advancement. Little wonder therefore that the bulk (about 80%) of our readers is made up of college and private students. These examination candidates raise awkward problems. In West African libraries the majority of the private students want few books from the library, but want to keep them overdue until the examination date, while the college students, since the library does not necessarily stock the required text books for their examinations, use the reference library mainly to study from their own books with little or no reference to the library collections. Clearly, the impossibility of meeting their needs also account for why the private students borrow so few books from our lending libraries.

The question arising from this, a question that has worried the African librarians for some time, is, whether libraries should purchase a great many copies of the standard textbooks which these candidates require for the examinations - but which will not be used for most of the year.[8]

In suggesting an answer to this problem, it must be observed that this type of reader is a product of the African society with its mass illiteracy, non-formation of the reading habit in childhood, lack of suitable reading materials, limited leisure and - above all - a certificate-oriented education with its attendant emphasis on formal examinations.

Our libraries will continue to provide an ineffective service if we do not provide fairly adequately for the students who form the bulk of our clientele. Certainly the use of our public libraries would be severely curtailed if these students had an atmosphere in their homes congenial for study. To suggest the employment of any or all of the usual library devices such as displays, reading lists, exhibitions, radio talks and so on to interest them in what the library has is, in my opinion, to beg the question.

Their text book needs should be provided, despite the expense involved and the minimal use made of the stock for the greater portion of the year. This calls for resource-sharing among the libraries in an area - say a region. It could be run on similar lines as London's metropolitan special collection.

There is hope however, that the situation will improve in the foreseeable future, as our children's and school libraries improve and children not only form the reading habit but also experience the importance of the library in effective education, through the efforts of their teachers. Besides, the mass literacy effort which is gradually gathering strength in most parts of Africa today is likely to win the public libraries more readers. Our libraries should therefore actively identify themselves with it.

VII INFRASTRUCTURAL DEVELOPMENT

Many countries in Africa still lack such basic amenities as reliable telephonenetwork, good roads and postal services, not to mention telex. I do not want to bore you here by discussing how the lack of an efficient communication network can be a hindrance to good library service. That, you know better than I do. Painful though it may be, it is unfortunately an area in which I feel the librarian can do very little. It is a problem which the government of each country should solve and the library cannot pretend to feel more concerned about it than the other social services of the state.

VIII LIBRARY CO-OPERATION

It is sometimes felt that libraries in Africa do not co-operate. This is not true. The six oldest universities in Nigeria have since 1975 co-operated in the acquisition of African government publications.[9] John Ndegwa, the librarian of the University of Nairobi talked of a sort of gentleman's agreement to lend important materials among the libraries of East Africa, at the IFLA/Unesco pre-session seminar for librarians from developing countries held at Antwerp University in September 1977. Such pockets of resource-sharing exist here and there in Africa. What can be said is that the degree of co-operation is not high enough, bearing in mind their limited resources. But African librarians argue that it is this very limitation of their resources and the expense of sharing them that make co-operation difficult. In fact, most of the problems facing library work in Africa play their part in limiting inter-library co-operation. Take, for instance, the long distances between cities and countries in Africa. This should make inter-lending a must. But because of poor and unreliable communication, it is seldom undertaken, except sometimes at great expense, using a courier service. Large scale resource-sharing can do a world of good to library work in Africa. The librarians know this and are willing to co-operate. But meaningful co-operation in Africa calls for certain pre-requisites demanding financial commitment at the national level.

IX LIBRARY SUPPLY AGENCIES

One of the desirable establishments for effective co-operation in the public library service in modern times is the library bureau. It is today a necessary adjunct to national library systems in parts of Europe, especially the Scandinavian countries.[10] I shall perhaps bore my European audience if I attempt to delve into the importance of such bureaux in public library services. That would be telling them what they should be telling me.

However, most of my collegues from Africa will no doubt agree with me that some of our most worrying problems include the tedium of cataloguing and book processing routines, where to purchase suitable library furniture and equipment quickly and at competitive prices, the compilation of our national bibliographies and union catalogues, where to obtain expert advice on the design of new library buildings and where to bind and reinforce our books. A good library bureau will take these responsibilities off our shoulders and enable us to devote more time to actual service to readers and also render library service more efficiently than we do now.

We certainly need such agencies in Africa, but how do we set about establishing them? Their history in Scandinavia and other parts of Europe shows that they are invariably a result of co-operation and that they begin in a small way. Co-operation can take place between libraries and private or commercial enterprises. In Africa, the government, through the National Library, could be a partner. The blueprint of the service will depend on the individual country and its particular situation. The developed countries with the requisite experience can lend a helping hand by way of expert advice, training of staff and direct financial aid. Alternatively, they could join hands with the state government of National Library in establishing branches of library bureaux in African countries. Financial contribution by co-operating libraries need be more than a small proportion of the annual budget, say ten per cent. But this must be guaranteed until the proposition is on its feet. What counts is tenacity of purpose.

X THE SIZE OF AFRICAN COUNTRIES

The large size of African countries, with long distances between centres of population, places considerable strain upon the meagre resources in the provision of social services for the entire community. This is manifestly true of public library services. These services are consequently centred in cities and towns to the exclusion of the rural areas.

But in most African countries most of the people live in the rural areas. How do we extend library service to them? The most appropriate answer so far is the use of mobile libraries. But many roads in Africa are bad and some good only in some periods of the year. The mobile libraries simply cannot negotiate them. The vehicles last about half of their normal life elsewhere and in some cases spare parts are hard to come by. This means that a mobile library service is an expensive service in Africa. There is therefore no obvious or easy solution to the problem of service in the rural areas of Africa. What many librarians in Africa do is to limit the mobile library services to the areas through which there are good or metalled roads and supplement this service with book boxes.

Manufacturers of our book-buses in Europe have been able to modify them to suit the hot climate of Africa. It would be appreciated if they could also increase their sturdiness to make them better able to stand our rough roads.

XI CONCLUSIONS

I began by observing that the library service in Africa is a mass of problems. I have dealt with the matter at length and yet seem hardly to have scratched the surface of the topic. It has been indicated that most of the problems must be solved by librarians themselves. But I have also drawn attention to areas in which our colleagues from the developed countries can be of assistance to us and roused two disturbing questions for consideration. I shall be content if this paper gives rise to a fruitful discussion of the problems of library work in Africa.

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ANNEXES

Annex 1

RESOLUTIONS OF THE THIRD AFRO-NORDIC LIBRARY CONFERENCE

Proposals for practical library co-operation between the African and the Nordic countries

1. The Conference suggests the establishment of bi- and multilateral relations between African and Nordic library associations, libraries and library schools for the exchange of publications and other forms of practical co-operation.

2. The Conference suggests the establishment of support programmes for the further education of library personnel and library school teachers, including basic collections of teaching materials for African library schools. Such support could include the following:

   - finance, books and other teaching materials, e.g. model reference collections
   - provision of consultants in specialised fields together with funding for these consultants
   - financial assistance in local salaries for local personnel
   - teaching materials and suitable technolgy

3. The Conference recommends support of the work being carried out within IFLA, for example the proposals from the pre-conference seminar in Lund in 1979, the recommendations from the 45th General Council meeting, and the efforts made in various divisions, sections and round tables to provide funding for library projects in Africa.

4. The Conference supports better representation for African librarians within IFLA in meeting the travel expenses of African delegates who attend meetings and the annual fees of African library associations to IFLA, if

necessary. Nordic co-operation in the library field also has rather special aspect: co-operation in international conferences. The Nordic countries are small and have limited means to send people to distant IFLA meetings. It has been the custom to bring the delegates from the Nordic countries together and agree who will report on the various divisions, sections and round tables of the conference.

It seems justified to believe that African delegates to such international meetings would profit from a similar arrangement. Also one could make a case for a pre-conference meeting to decide on African priorities in some fields, which could then be put to the IFLA conference. Money for such a pre-conference meeting could probably be obtained from SAREC or IDRC or some other research supporting organisation.

5. The Conference suggests the establishment of a translation centre for those countries which want it to translate myths, legends and books originally printed in one vernacular into another vernacular and to enable librarians to tape and edit stories and have them printed, perhaps by the national library members.

6. The Conference recommends the request of increased support from Unesco and other possible international or regional sponsors for library development projects of realistic programmes of joint Afro-Nordic origin, especially in the field of library education.

The efforts undertaken should be organised in such a way as to ensure the best possible co-operation with IFLA - especially with the regional section for Africa and the section for library schools. Future development should be planned with reference to international programmes like UBC, VAP and GIP-Program of Unesco.

7. The Conference recommends the request from the Nordic countries of aid and support on the amelioration of working conditions of the existing library schools and support in establishing post-graduate courses, regional library schools and a standing programme of visits, short-term training work and specialist courses under the leadership of a Scandinavian organisation.

8. The most important of the above resolutions is that concerning library education.

During the 1960's a Nordic Advanced Course in Librarianship ran for several years. It aimed at public librarians and was quite succesful in attracting librarians from all the Nordic countries and offering an educational programme which built upon and extended the knowledge they had already gained through the various national programmes. Since these courses were discontinued, there have been several proposals to organise a new Nordic education scheme of this kind, but so far nothing has happened.

One suggestion could be outlined as follows:

- An Afro-Nordic post-graduate course in library and information science should be established.
- The students would come from both African and Nordic countries. The course would be at advanced level, and the students would, ideally, have completed their basic education in librarianship.
- The teaching language would probably, for practical reasons, be English and the curriculum would be geared to African needs. This would serve a two-fold purpose: it would be a better curriculum for African students and would provide an opportunity for Nordic students to learn more of problems relating to African conditions.
- The funding would be a joint Nordic venture, possibly in co-operation with Unesco and other international bodies. The Nordic and African professional organisations and institutions - not least the Nordic library schools - would play an important part.

- The duration of the course would not be longer than one academic year (9 months)

- The teachers would be recruited partly from Africa, partly from the Nordic countries and partly from a wider international setting. Relations would be established with international bodies like IFLA's Section on Library Schools.

- As for the location of such a programme, it would be linked with established institutions providing library education on this level. It seems natural that the suggestions of the African countries would count considerably when the decision of the location of such a programme was taken.

9. Considering the importance of up-to-date information in the field of library services in Africa and the co-operation of library work between Africa and the Nordic countries, it is recommended that two Library and Information Centres be established - one in the Nordic countries and another in Africa - to collect information on library work in African countries and disseminate it to African and Nordic countries. Such a centre could be attached to one of the institutes which deals mainly with Africa, and African as well as Nordic countries could be asked to send documents dealing with librarianship in Africa to these Centres.

10. While providing aid for library development in Africa, the Conference feels that Nordic countries should take a keen interest in granting aid to the countries with the least developed library services.

11. The Conference recommends that a detailed survey of library training in African countries should be compiled.

12. The Conference feels that a necessary prerequisite for the accelerated development of the services in Africa is stronger political and financial support in individual African countries. It recommends that national library organisations, regional associations and other African bodies take necessary action at the national level to ensure such support.

Annex 2

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Annex 3

PROGRAMME OF THE THIRD AFRO-NORDIC LIBRARY CONFERENCE

Monday, September 3, 1979

13.30 Opening of the Conference
Speech by Mr. Kalevi Kivistö, Minister of Education

15.00 From oral tradition to literary writing: the awakening of national awareness (Heikki Kirkinen, Finland)

African Library Systems (L.E. Samarasinghe, Unesco)

17.30 Visits to the Society of Finnish Literature and Helsinki University Library

19.30 Reception by the Ministry of Education

Tuesday, September 4, 1979

9.30 Planning of library infrastructures: Nordic views (Lars Tynell, Sweden)

Problems relating to the running of library networks in Africa (A.G.T. Ofori, Ghana)

13.00 Centralised services for libraries: Nordic experiences (Harald Granheim, Norway)

African experiences (Ezekiel Kaungamno, Tanzania)

19.30 Reception by the Ministry for Foreign Affairs

Wednesday, September 5, 1979

8.30 The role of public libraries in the transfer of information (Annette Skov, Denmark)

Research Library Section:

10.00 Sharing resources on national and regional basis:
A Nordic view (Eeva-Maija Tammekann, Finland)

An African view (S.B. Aje, Nigeria)

14.00 Visit to the Technical Research Centre of Finland, Technical Information Service

Public Library Section:

10.00 Visit to Töölö Branch Library

14.00 Making new readers through library service for children
A Nordic view (Gerd Hillman, Sweden)
An African view (Gloria Dillsworth, Sierra Leone)

General Programme continues

16.00 Integrated library education
A Nordic view (Ben Rugaas, Norway)

An African view (A.A. Bousso, Senegal)

19.30 Libraries in the African development projects:
(Søren Fjeldborg, Denmark and D.E. Uba, Nigeria)

Thursday, September 6, 1979

9.30 Departure by bus for Tammisaari, visit to Tammisaari public library

13.30 Departure by bus for Turku. Visit to Lieto-Tarvasjoki primary school library and Nummi Branch Library

Friday, September 7, 1979

8.30 Visits to Turku University Library or Ilpoinen reference library for primary schools

10.00 Conference report and recommendations

14.00 Final session
Speech by Mr. Sakari Kiuru, Chairman of the Finnish National Commission for Unesco

Annex 4

OPENING ADDRESS BY MR. KALEVI KIVISTÖ,
MINISTER OF CULTURE, FINLAND

Ladies and Gentlemen,

Human knowledge has increased rapidly during the past few decades. Individuals as well as entire nations are faced with the difficulty of keeping pace with a large amount of new knowledge. Libraries traditionally form the basic organisation which makes the fruits of the mental efforts of mankind available to wide circles of ordinary people as well as highly specialised researchers.

In Finland we are in a fortunate position: as a result of a long development, literacy has been relatively widely spread for as long as two or three centuries. Supply of literature was very scarce for most of the time, however, but in the second half of last century it became more easily available and literacy became more widespread among all circles of citizens, regardless of their social situation, political views or wealth. Finns learned to respect knowledge because it was the most efficient tool in improving prevailing conditions. But they also demanded from literature a clue to their own identity, their spiritual self. This is perhaps one of the reasons for the fact that books are here still highly respected: a great deal literature is published in Finland relative to the population and the number of newspapers published in this country is exceptionally high compared to other European countries.

The fact that literature is bought in relatively large quantities has not made libraries redundant. On the contrary, the use of libraries has continuously increased - very rapidly over the past few years. Each Finn borrows, on average, almost 15 books a year from public libraries and the volume of loan activities is increasing. This is proof, not only of an increasing interest in literature, but also of the

capacity of the libraries to satisfy the demand. I hope that in the course of this conference you will be able to form a picture of how the libraries in this country function, what their problems are and what experiences you could perhaps utilise in your own work.

At first sight, it may be surprising that librarians from areas geographically as far apart as Africa and the Nordic countries should convene for a conference. During the present decade, the Finnish National Commission for Unesco, with the aid and encouragement of Unesco, has shown a growing interest in promoting co-operation between the African and Nordic countries. For example, in the field of culture a seminar on African literature was organised here in 1974.

The development of co-operation between Finland and some African countries concerning libraries and African native language studies has also been followed with great interest. All this reflects the special relationship which the Nordic countries have traditionally had and still have with the African countries. At the same time it emphasises the significance of personal contacts in the fields of literary culture and librarianship. Personal contacts and information about conditions prevailing in other countries help to break down many of the barriers and misunderstandings caused by the narrowness of our perspective and the limitations of our experience. In breaking down these barriers, your work in the sectors of literature and communication is an essential matter concerning the potential of all mankind.

Scientific and technological information was one important question in the discussions of the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development which ended early last Saturday in Vienna. One of the aims of this UNCSTED conference was to find means of sharing information possessed by the industrialised countries with developing countries in a more efficient and profitable way. The strengthening of the information programme of Unesco and especially the

UNISIST-system is an essential step towards achieving this aim.

Science and technology can be used in many ways. But if the users are not mentally mature and humane people, even the best achievements of technology can turn against man. Rapid technical development is not a good thing in itself. It is more important to adapt this development in a proper way to our own mental resources and needs. In spite of the increasing importance of the mass communication media, the book is still the most important medium of transferring thoughts from one era to another, from one human being to another. A library system promoting humane thoughts, trying to develop what is best in human beings, is an effective tool in promoting peace and understanding between nations.

On behalf of the Government of Finland I would like to express our pleasure in having this opportunity to arrange this conference, in co-operation with the representatives of the other Nordic countries. It has been said that the resources of which there is a shortage in the world are not always material ones. The most acute shortage is of good ideas and insights, because without these material resources cannot be properly utilised. This conference will hardly be able to increase material resources in any of the countries represented here. But if it gives birth to a single good idea - besides creating opportunities for personal contacts - it will have fulfilled its purpose.

Annex 5

SPEECH BY MR. SAKARI KIURU,
CHAIRMAN OF THE FINNISH NATIONAL
COMMISSION FOR UNESCO

Having been unable to attend your conference earlier, I am very pleased to be here with you today and to have the opportunity to say a few words on behalf of the Finnish National Commission for Unesco.

The reason why I was prevented from meeting you at the very beginning of this gathering was an invitation by the Soviet National Commission for Unesco to discuss in Moscow the co-operation of our commissions and to follow a Unesco seminar in Tashkent for journalists from developing countries. In this connection, the importance of literacy was many times stressed and it reminded me that libraries are very important in keeping the skills of reading and writing alive. Without literacy, there cannot be either newspaper readers or genuine communication between the people in order to build up and regulate the community.

I have been told that the educational work of the libraries as a basis for public education has been emphasised in your lectures and discussions during this conference. It is my conviction that its importance can hardly be overstressed. Here in Finland, like our colleagues in the other Nordic countries, we can be satisfied that we have been able to develop our public libraries to a very satisfactory level. They are not only an "everyman's university", nor do they merely disseminate factual information. They are and should be means by which as many people as possible can develop themselves as human beings and reach greater mental maturity.

Individual development is of course a basis for community development, too, but it is not enough. A social and political awareness must also be created. In our countries we were lucky enough to have public libraries as long ago as

early 1800s, and they have played a decisive part in nation building and - more important - in the democratisation processes of our countries.

Our citizens organisations could not have been founded and developed without the availability of books for everybody. And I am sure that the members of mass organisations understand this dependence, for their representatives in, for example, municipal councils have always strongly supported the founding and financing of public libraries. Certain organisations like the Workers' Educational Associations and the Seamen's Union have even created mobile libraries for their members. I do not know whether you have spoken here about such specialities as transportable book boxes, which could perhaps be adopted by developing countries.

I have also been informed that in your discussions you have been encouraged to learn from the successes as well as the mistakes of library work in this geographical region, so far away from your countries. Our purpose as organisers has not been to show how excellently library activities have been organised here - but we may be able to give you an example of how library activities can be developed in a small country. You, our dear African friends, are now witnessing what could already be called a final result - that is, a situation which has been preceded by development that has taken more than a century of hard work. Therefore it is important for you to try to find out why things are as they now are in Finland. We are well aware that we cannot offer ready-made solutions. What we hope to be able to offer is presentation of our circumstances, on the basis of which you yourselves can work out ideas and perhaps even solutions related to your work.

This conference is not a solitary phenomenon when viewed against the historical background to Finland and the African countries. Finland has never had any colonies, but the Finns have already for a century worked in some of the African countries participating, among other things, in the creation

of their written languages, the promotion of literacy and the encouragement of their national literatures. As a development of a few years ago it is worth mentioning that several Finnish librarians have worked for a lengthy period to promote the development of the library system in Africa.

The Finnish National Commission for Unesco has included in its activities several projects on development in Africa. Some of you present here attended the Library Building Conference in 1975 and I also recall the seminar on African literature in 1974, when we had some distinguished African authors as our guests here. It is my impression that in the field of libraries in a broad sense, development co-operation could take more advantage of your experience as well as ours. To receive really concrete results, transfer of information and expertise could be expanded in the framework of development co-operation. It remains in our mutual interest to determine how best to achieve these results. I hope that occasions like this one will provide opportunities to develop foundations for continued discussion and co-operation.

I thank all of you who have made this conference possible by preparing papers, giving lectures, translating and participating in the discussions. We are grateful to Unesco which supported this Conference financially and provided us with a working document.

Finally, I sincerely hope that you have had a fruitful and enjoyable time in Finland and wish you all possible success in the future in your very fundamental cultural work, so that in our next conference we shall be able to congratulate you on a substantial step forward in this area of activities.

Thank you, bon voyage and näkemiin, på återseende!